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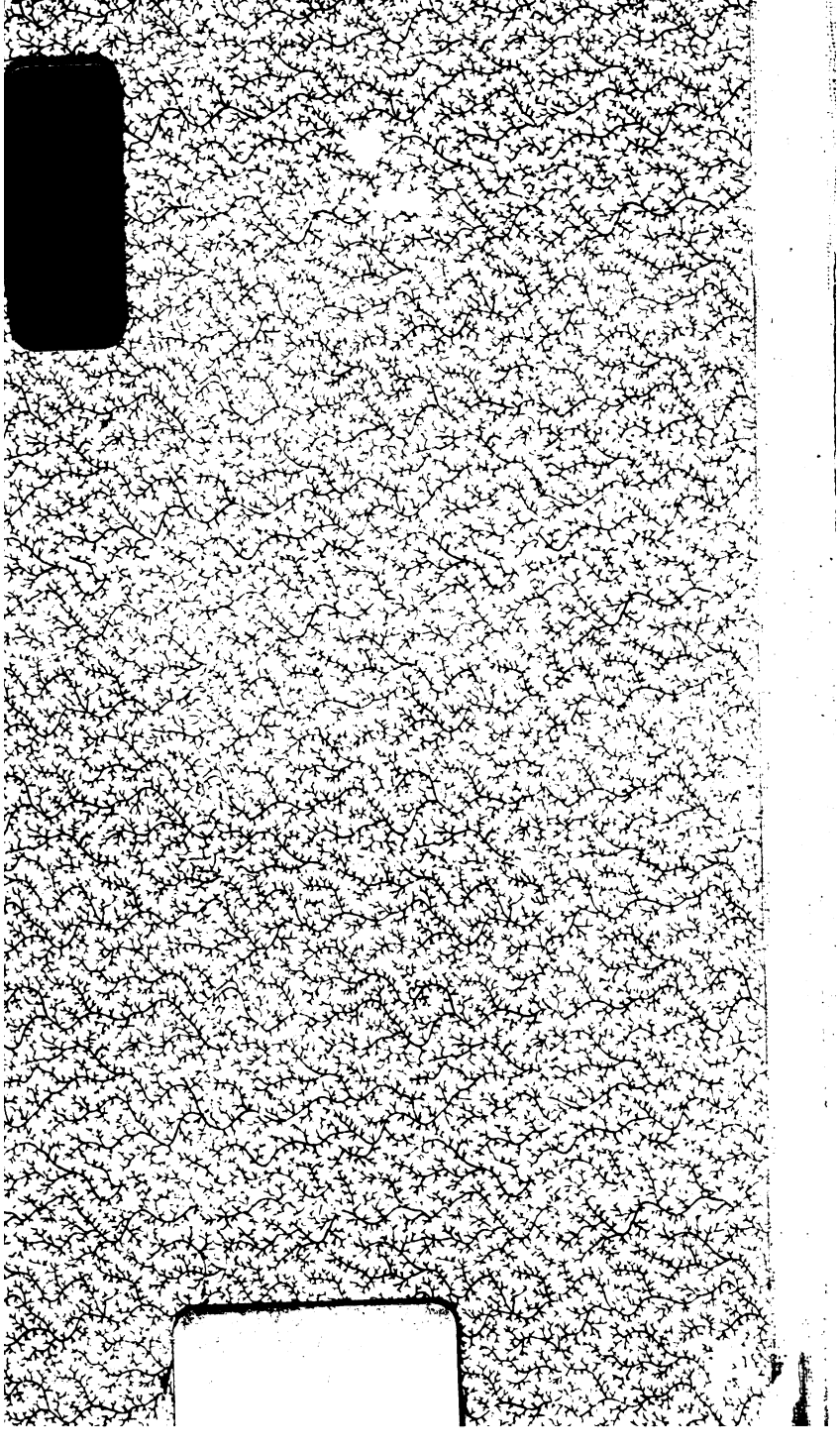
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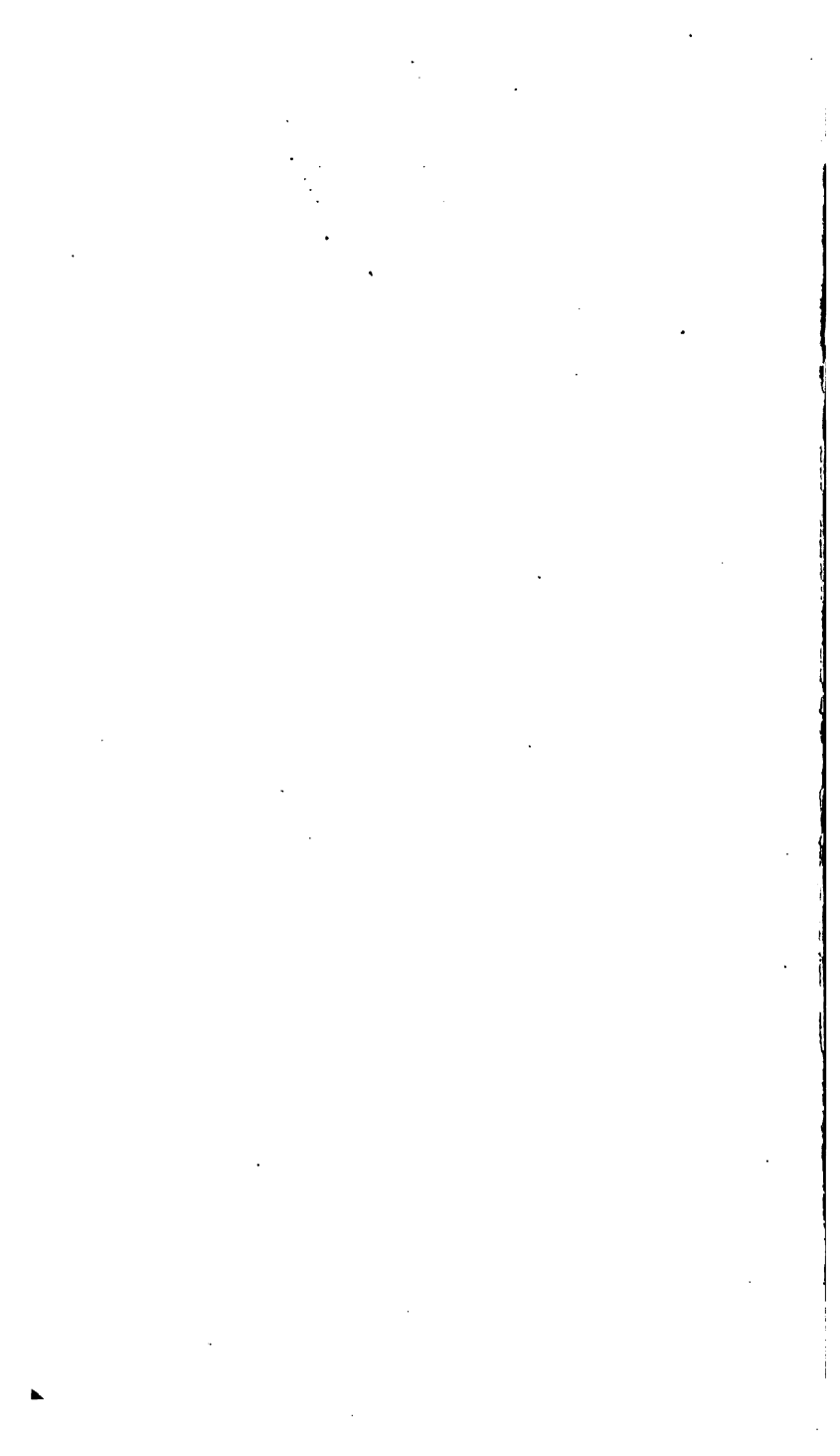
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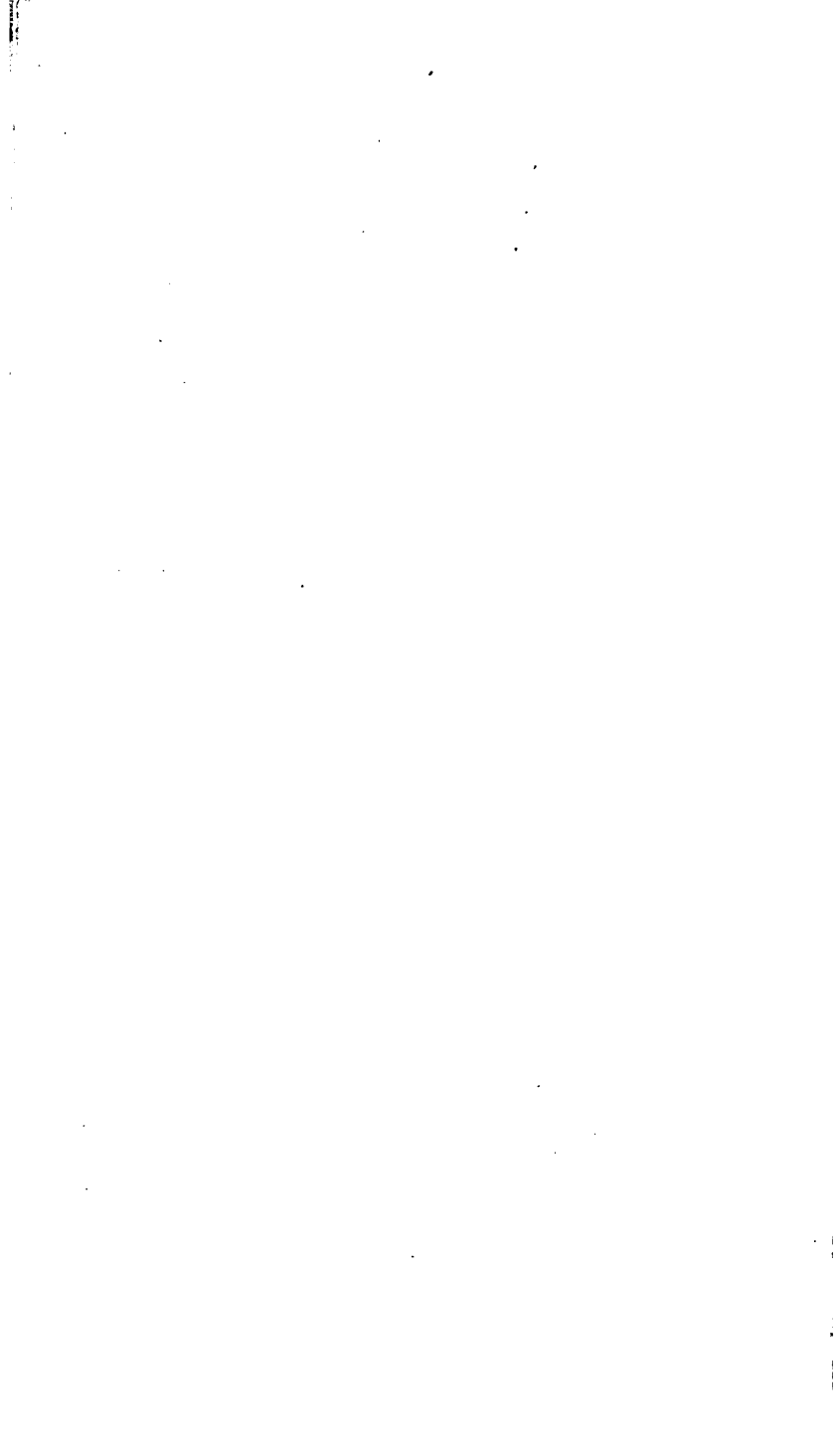
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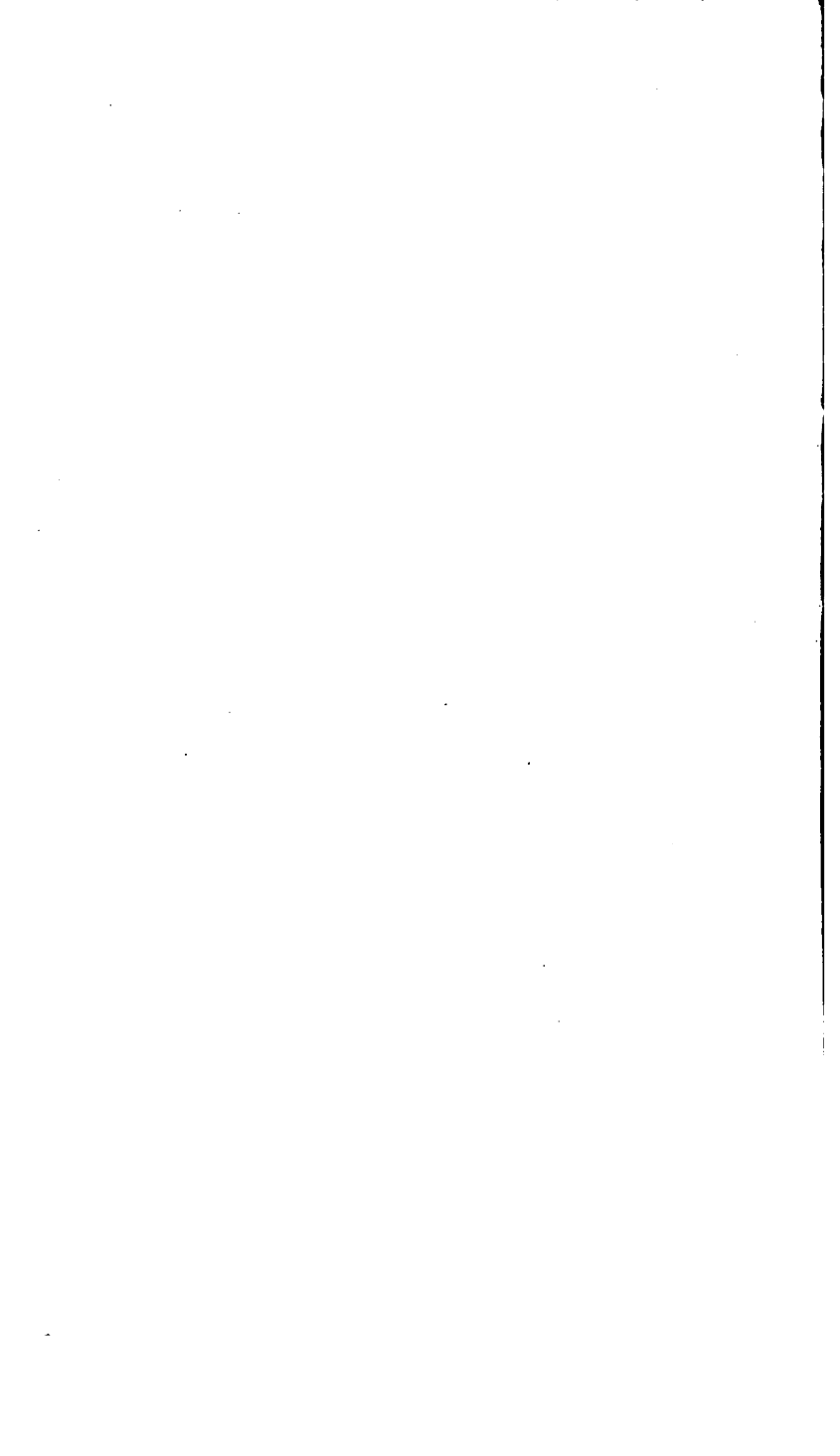
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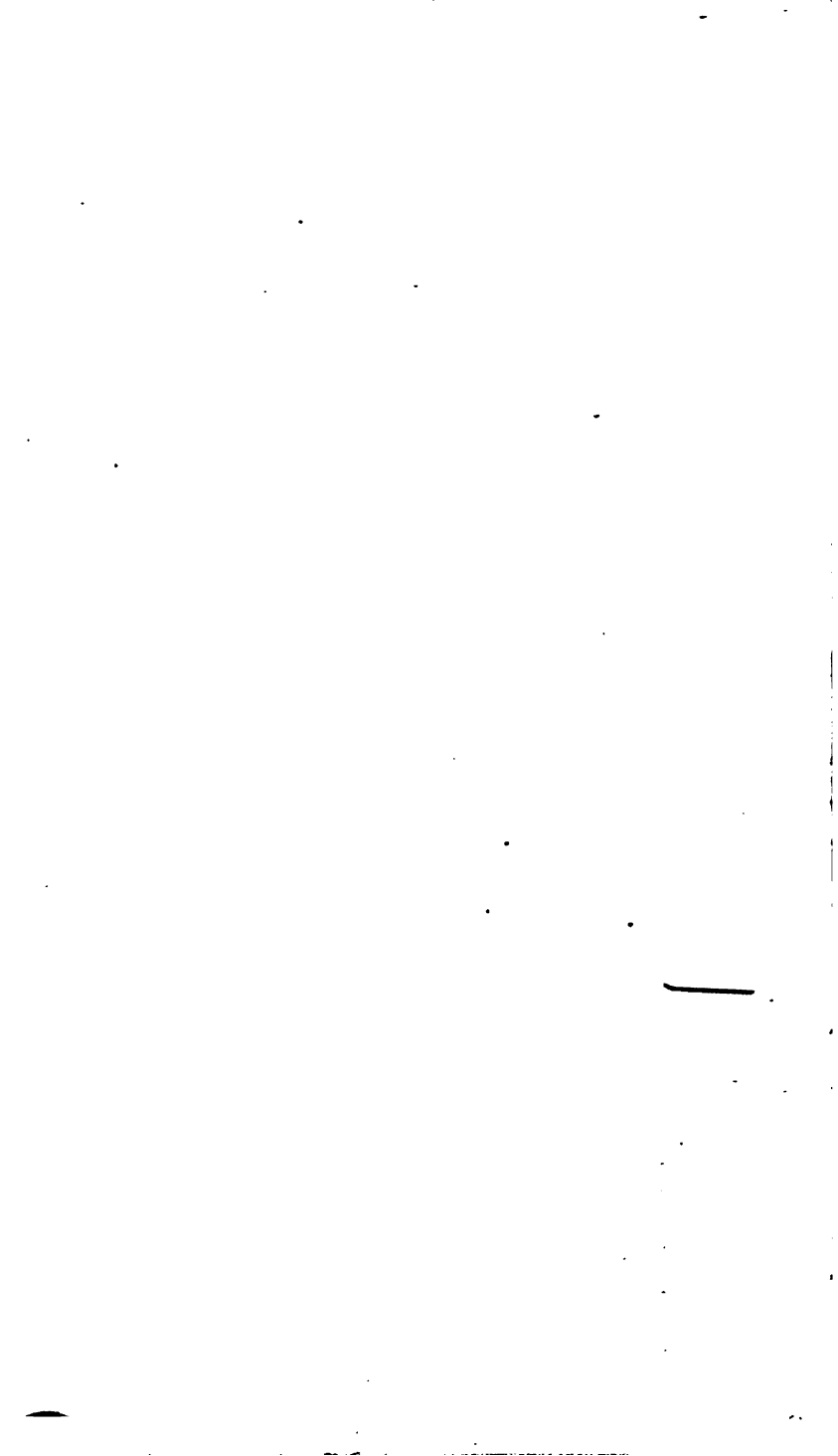












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ACCOMPANIED BY AN ATLAS, EXHIBITING CHRONOLOGY IN A PICTURE OF NATIONS,  
AND PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY IN A SERIES OF MAPS.

Designed for Schools and Academies.

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BY EMMA WILLARD,  
PRINCIPAL OF TROY FEMALE SEMINARY, AUTHOR OF  
"THE REPUBLIC OF AMERICA," &c.

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## PREFACE.

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THE object of this work is to furnish the reader not only with the main facts of history, but also with a plan of classification which will enable him to arrange whatever historical knowledge he may afterwards acquire. Simplicity and clearness have been studied. The little tree which bears its fruit so low that whoever wishes, may easily fill his basket, is often preferred to the large and lofty, whose abundant stores are above a convenient reach.

The work, though a compend, it is hoped, will not be found dry or tedious. It is doubtless possible, by proper grouping, and by placing the main figures in the light, to make a picture interesting, although it be on a small scale. Whether this has been done in the present work, must be left to the candid reader to determine. That the work is true to religion, virtue, and human rights, the author is confident.

An attempt is here made to exhibit history in its proper relative proportions. The painter allows to objects in space less and less room upon his canvass as those objects recede into the distance. Such is equally the order of nature in regard to objects as they exist in time. Yet, the distant mountain must have more room in the picture than the dark valley that lies near. Thus tower Greece and Rome, amid the dimness of antiquity, and thus sink the dark ages, though nearer to the foreground.

Some writers of universal history follow the ethnographical method, or that by which nations are separately described. The reader is thus naturally led to consider contemporary events as consecutive, and to seek for some plan by which such events may be placed together. This is to produce the chronographical method, which he is apt to think should have been followed by the writer. On the other hand, where the chronographical method prevails, the reader complains of a confusion arising from mingling together the histories of different nations, selects the scattered parts belonging to each, and having put them together, reproduces the ethnographical plan. He now thinks that, because he has come to a good understanding of the subject, *his* method alone is good; not reflecting that he has had the advantages of both methods. The truth appears to be that history cannot be well understood, unless the reader can with the one method, trace every great nation by itself through all its most important changes, and with the other, conceive himself placed in

any of the most noted periods of time, and glance through the whole range of contemporary events.

To effect this connection of the two methods, the old device of a chronological tree, and other more modern inventions, have been highly useful. The author believes that the "Picture of Nations," contained in the Atlas, is on some accounts, an improvement on any of these plans. It was formed, in the first place, by putting the old chronological tree into perspective. Subsequently, the thought occurred, of using shade, as in a picture, to represent obscurity and moral darkness, and light to represent the reverse. Several other devices have been adopted to exhibit abstract subjects to the sight, and thus to aid the memory.

In the present work, the one of the other of the two methods mentioned has been pursued, as the occasion seemed to require. When a nation has preceded in its affairs with little connexion with other nations, its history has been treated separately. When several nations have been, as it were, blended, by reason of their relations with each other, as in case of war, their history, for the time, has also been blended.

The division of the whole subject into three grand parts, instead of two, although an innovation, will, the author believes, be perfectly satisfactory to the candid. Such a division will greatly relieve the memory. The boundaries between Ancient and Modern History are variously stated, and allowedly unfixed. The term "middle ages," is established by good usage. Why should not the history of those ages be termed Middle History, and considered as a distinct division of the subject?

The authors consulted in writing this work are numerous. It has not been compiled from other compilations, but from original writers. A list of them may be given in a subsequent edition.

Concerning the utility of a series of maps in the study of history, and the importance of making events clear as to the place *where*, as well as to the time *when*, they occurred, the author has fully given her views in "The History of the Republic of America." She here begs leave to refer the reader to the preface and introduction of that work, not only for those views, but for some others, deemed important in treating historical subjects, by which she has endeavoured, in preparing this compendium, to be guided.

The author was unable to read the work while in the press, but as an able proof-reader was employed, it is hoped that not more errors will be found than are common in first editions. Should teachers who use the work, or others who may examine it, detect errors, either in point of fact, arrangement, or style, and inform the author, or should they suggest improvements, such information or suggestions will be thankfully received.

*Troy, September, 1835.*



## TO TEACHERS.

TEACHING with a new book is something like living in a new house. Experience is necessary to know how the parts can be used to the best advantage. The builder can show for what purpose they were designed. but the tenant, after all, will use them as he pleases.

The practice of our colleges and best schools establishes the principle, that to teach well it is necessary to take a given period of time, and lay out a definite course of study for the period. In the author's school, this period is twenty-one weeks. This history is intended to be studied in two such periods; Ancient and Middle History in one, and Modern History in the other.\* It is customary to begin with ancient history. In many instances this takes all the time which the pupil can devote to this branch of study. It is true that by so beginning we go from causes to effects; but this consideration, seems to be overbalanced by the fact that every man is necessarily the centre of his own system, and acquires the most useful knowledge when he learns that which is most nearly connected with himself. Hence, if but one of the two could be studied, the preference should be given to the Modern History. Although expecting that both will be studied in my school, I have still wished to have a work so arranged that the study may, at the option of the teacher, be begun with the Modern, as it might prevent the necessity of forming two classes in any one term.

Having fixed upon the course of study for the term, let the pupil understand that he is to be called on at its close, to give an account of the whole subject. The teacher and pupil will then feel that the method which perhaps may be the easiest at first for all parties, that is to go over with the same unvaried round of learning a lesson from a book and reciting it, may not be the best to impress the mind so that the pupil will remember what he is to-day learning, at the end of four or five months; much less keep it for use as he advances into life. For this purpose it is important to present the subject to the eye, whenever it is practicable. It is my intention that my pupils shall begin with studying the "Picture of Nations," and learn from this the plan of the work; giving them such questions as these—Under what three grand divisions is the subject treated? Into how many Periods is the Ancient History divided? Into how many the Middle? Into how many the Modern? What Epochs divide the Ancient from the Middle History? What the Middle from the Modern? What are the Epochs, with their dates, which divide the Ancient History into Periods? What the Epochs that divide the Middle? What those that divide the Modern?

What nations are known to have existed in the first period of Ancient History? What in the second? What in the third? In the fourth? &c. What were the principal states of Greece? During what period did each become known? When was the empire of Cyrus formed, and of what nations? When that of Alexander, and of what nations? What nations were included in the Roman empire at the time of Christ, and at about what time were they united to it?

What are the principal barbarous nations which issued from the North-

\* In schools where a longer or shorter period is taken as a term, the teacher will of course make a different division, to correspond with the time.

ern Hive, and overran the Roman empire? During what periods were their irruptions? What are the modern European nations which arose from the ruins of the Roman empire? During what periods were they divided from it? What modern nations, which did not belong to the Roman empire, were formed from the Northern Hive? When was the empire of Charlemagne, and of what nations was it composed? When was that of Jenghis Khan, and of what nations composed? Of Tamerlane—of Margaret of Waldemar? With whom did the Caliphate begin? How long did it continue? At about what time did the Turks bring the eastern division of the Roman empire to a close? When was the empire of Charles V. formed, and of what nations did it consist? When was that of Napoleon formed, and of what nations did it consist?

But no sound improvement in universal history can be made unless we understand events as they transpire in place, as well as in time; that is, without a knowledge of the progressive geography of the world. I would give the pupils general questions on the maps connected with the history, as for example: What part of the earth was known at the calling of Abraham, 1921? What at the institution of the passover, 1491? And so on respecting the other maps.\* To these questions general answers may, in the first place, be given. For instance, to the first question it may be briefly replied, that a small territory, extending around the eastern part of the Mediterranean, comprising the western portion of Asia, the south-eastern of Europe, and the north-eastern of Africa, is all that was at that period known. When this cursory view of the maps is taken, the student will have within his reach the plan of universal history, with "its two eyes, chronology and geography."

While this process is going on, which will require some attention from the teacher, lessons for study can be given from the book, beginning as before stated, either with Ancient or Modern History, at option. The marginal notes will answer every purpose of written questions. Stupid indeed must that teacher be, who, when he has before him the event or the person concerning which or whom he is to question his pupil, wants put into his text-book the phrases, "Give some account of"—or, "What does your author remark or state concerning," &c. Marginal notes are far more convenient than questions placed somewhere at a distance from the subject. But a thorough teacher will not allow his pupil to suppose that he is to learn merely to answer certain questions. His task is to read with attention the whole text, and give as good an account of it, both as to matter and manner, as he can; and the teacher's questions are but to help his memory in producing its stores. These questions should therefore be different in different stages of his progress; more minute, at first, more general, as he advances. During the first part of a term, it is a teacher's grand business to make his pupil *understand* the subject; during the last, to enable him to *remember* and *communicate* what he understands.

In the course of the study, the pupils will need to be exercised on the "Picture of Nations;" and if they are accustomed to draw, it will be well for them to delineate on an enlarged scale the three parts separately; making the part representing the Ancient History as large as it can be made, say on a sheet of fools-cap paper; then, as they read the text, they can put down, in their proper nations and times, all the important personages of whom they read: and so of the Middle and Modern Histories.

\* The series of maps is broken during the period of the dark ages. Geography then advanced but little. As cities have multiplied and states been subdivided, it was found impossible to make the maps complete without crowding them. Considerable care has been taken in this work, when places not on the maps are mentioned, to give some clue to their situation. But every teacher of history ought, if possible, to be furnished with large maps, so that such places may be shown to the pupil.

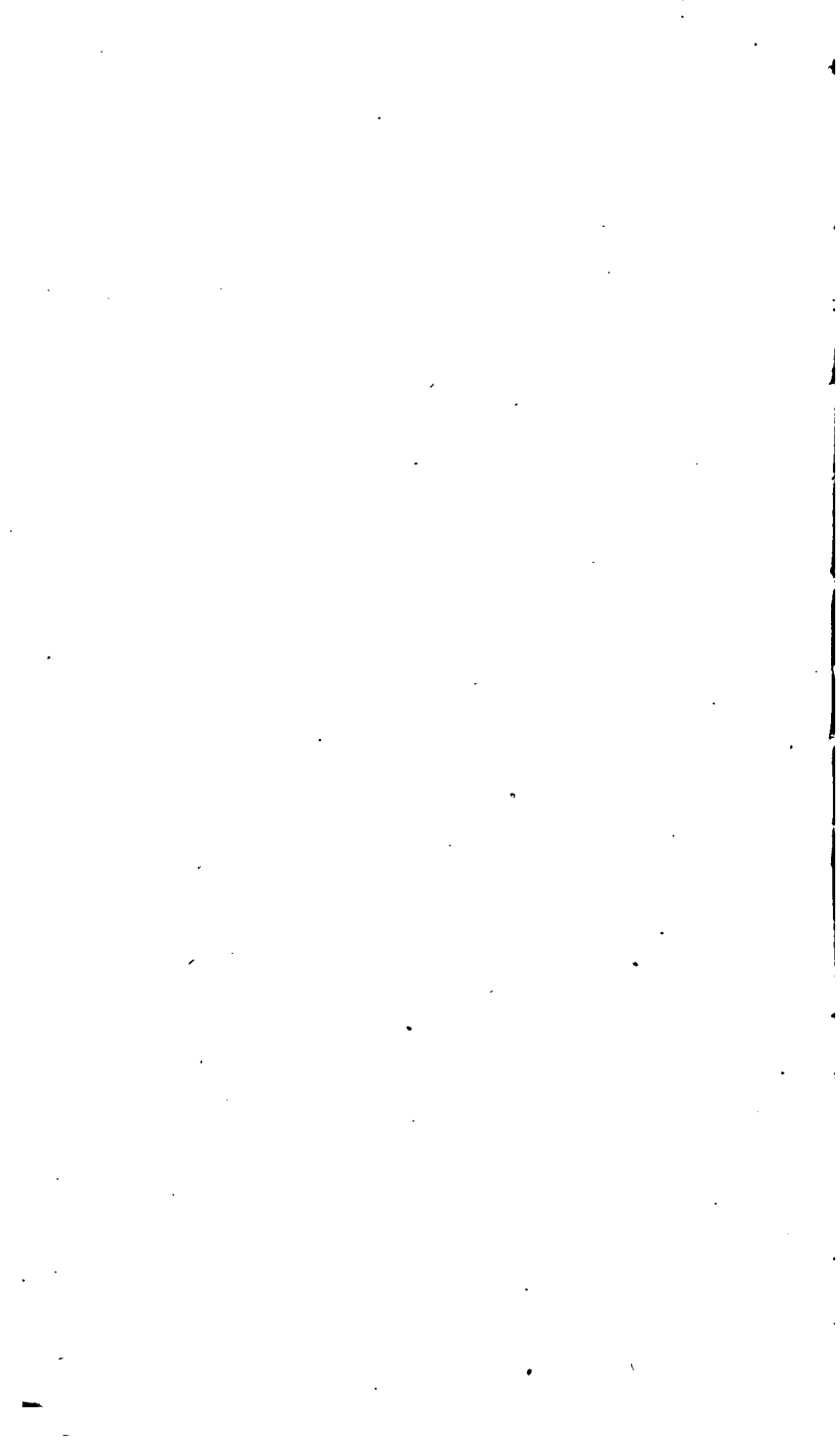
It will also be a good exercise for the pupils to draw, on an enlarged scale, the map dated at the close of whatever period they may be studying, so that they may locate the events of which they study. They will do well to delineate upon these maps the tracks of discoverers, the line of march of armies, and whatever else may aid their recollection, and keep in view the scenes of action.

The amount of knowledge treasured up from the book, must depend on circumstances. The pupil of industry, of ready and retentive memory, will have acquired more at the end of a given time, than the indolent or dull. Again, the capacity of the teacher will necessarily affect the degree of the pupil's acquirements. The teacher who is ambitious to excel, and desirous to perform his duty, will be careful never to go before his class without previous attention to the subject of the recitation; reading, where it is possible, other more extensive works, and consulting larger maps. He will thus be able to explain difficult passages, to embellish the subject by interesting traits of the characters mentioned, or amusing anecdotes, and to improve it by sound moral and religious reflections. The hour of recitation will thus be made delightful and truly profitable; for it is when pupils become engrossed by their subject, that their minds are really nourished. Encourage each one to express in language that part of the history which has most interested him. Do not make the task too hard, by obliging scholars to commit to memory too many dates; nor in reviewing, insist on their knowing all the names of sovereigns and other personages mentioned. Take those alone whose acts make their names easily remembered. The names of even the insignificant monarchs of important countries must be set down with their dates, to keep the chain unbroken; but the scholar who reads these, and knows where he may find them in his book if occasion require, may be excused from burdening his memory with the attempt to retain them all.

The teacher who needs assistance from the book, in giving subjects for examination, may find it in the Chronological Table and Index.\* It would be a good plan to make the "Picture of Nations" the groundwork of the pupil's examination.

Having read the book, he will be prepared to give an account of the nations represented, in either of the methods mentioned in the preface. First, ethnographically;—for instance, the pupil might describe England as having been one of those nations which arose from the ruins of the western division of the Roman empire—as overrun at such a period by the Saxons, and by them divided into seven kingdoms—which were about such a time united into one by Egbert—and so on with this nation and others, giving the history of each with more or less minuteness, according to circumstances. Secondly, the pupil ought to be prepared to take chronological views of the world, at its most important epochs. The teacher will do well frequently to glance aside from the history of a particular nation, to ask what nations were co-existent—what sovereigns were contemporary, or what important events occurred in such and such parts of the world at the date mentioned.

\* A work entitled "Chronology, or an Introduction and Index to Universal History," has been published by Leavitt, Lord & Co., New-York, which can be highly recommended as a convenient book of reference, comprehensive, clear, and correct.



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AND

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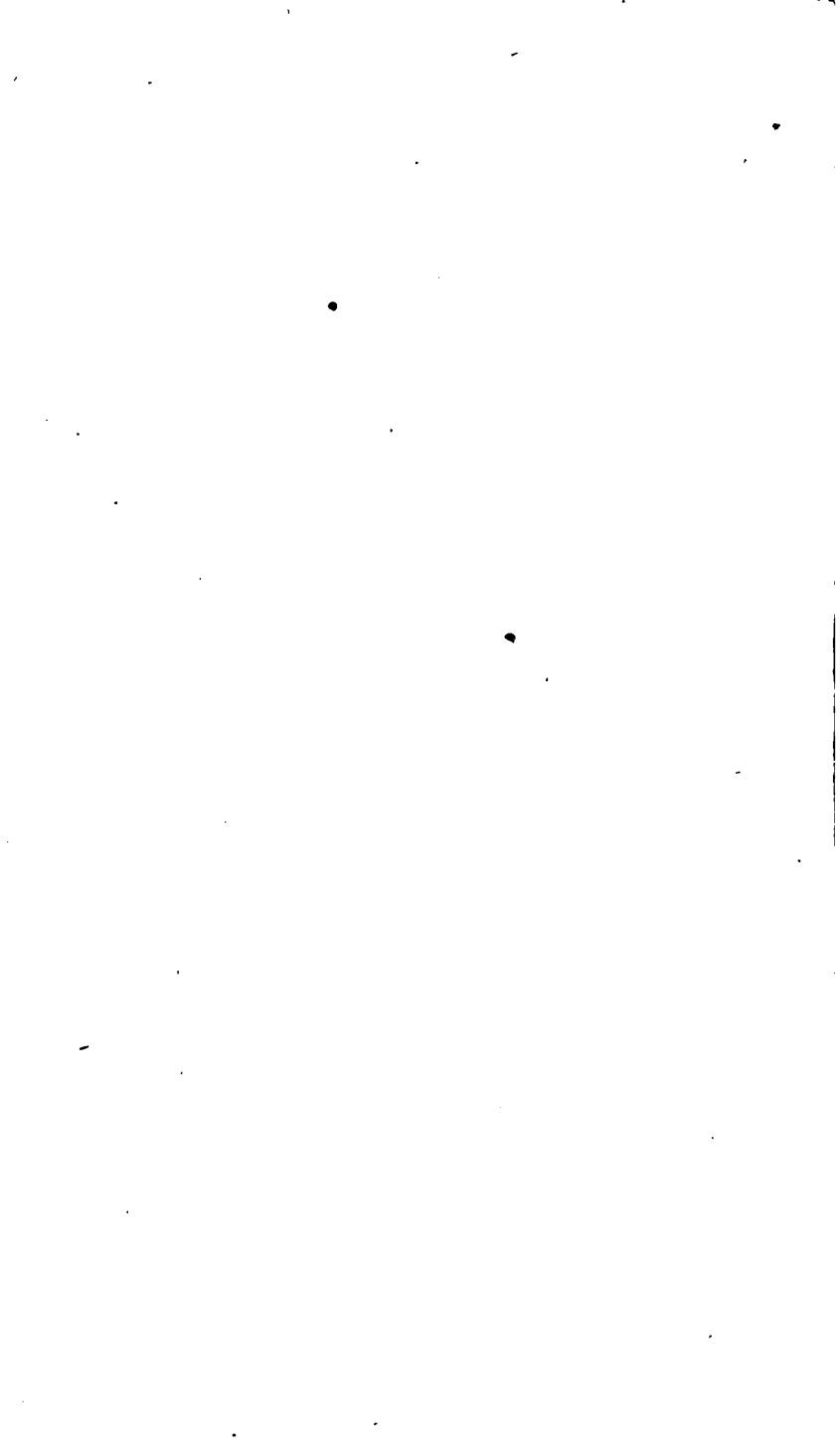
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# ANCIENT HISTORY.

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## PERIOD I.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED

FROM THE CREATION, 4004 B. C.

TO THE

The calling { FIRST EPOCH, 1921 B. C. } of Abraham.

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## CHAPTER I.

THE face of the whole earth, with a few exceptions, is now known. The family of man is divided by natural distinctions, into different races ; and by the boundary lines of the countries which they inhabit, into different nations, each governed by its own peculiar laws.

If we take a series of maps representing the entire world, and inquire concerning the length of time which the nations it now presents, have been known, we shall find in looking back to different periods, that by degrees, their names and places disappear.

In 1491, A. D., the whole continent of America was, as to those from whom we derive the knowledge of history, as though it were not. A little before the birth of our Saviour, Great Britain, the land of our ancestors, was unknown, as was the whole of the northern part of Europe, the southern part of Africa, and the eastern part of Asia. If we go back fifteen hundred years from the Christian era, no traces of inhabitants are to be found on the face of the earth, except a few comparatively small nations, around the eastern extremity of the Mediterranean Sea.\*

\* The cheats practised by the Brahmins, by which the learned of Europe were for a time made to believe in the great antiquity which they claim for their knowledge of the sciences, have been recently exposed ; and it is the opinion of a writer of high authority, Dugald Stewart, that the Sanscrit language itself is a mixture of the Greek with the original dialect of the country, introduced after its conquest, by Alexander the Great. I am aware that the Chinese make pretensions to great antiquity, but these pretensions cannot be considered as having any foundation. The records of their empire, we are informed, were all burned 600 years before the Christian era ; of course, all beyond this is vague conjecture or unauthentic tradition.

Hence, even without referring to the sacred writings, we should conclude that the human race probably had their origin from that region, and calculating their progress from what is known of later times, we should also conclude that they might have been, supposing they commenced with a single family, about two thousand years in coming to the state in which we find them.

4004. It is on the sacred writings alone, that we depend  
 The Creation. for historical information concerning the creation, and first abode of the human race. These, the most accurate calculations of Scripture dates and places, fix at 4004 years before the Christian era, and in the region east of the Mediterranean Sea. Thus we find our confidence in the truth of the Sacred Scriptures greatly strengthened by a comprehensive view of the history of nations.

In the infancy of the human species God appears to have dealt with man in a manner different from the ordinary course of his providence at the present day.

An earthly parent is more with his helpless and ignorant children than with those who have experience. The first duty which he teaches them is implicit obedience to his will; and when he finds them wayward and disobedient, he chastises them, and sometimes with severity. Thus, the Scriptures inform us, did the Almighty Parent deal with man in the infant state of his being.

Adam and Eve, whom God had created in his own image, pure and holy, disobeyed his command, and were driven from their first abode, the beautiful garden of Eden. This is supposed to have been somewhere near the head waters of the Euphrates. On the day of their disobedience, the sentence of death was passed upon them; the man was condemned to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, and the woman, who had been seduced by flattery and undue curiosity, to be the first transgressor, was punished with a double curse. Yet God, in his mercy, then promised, that of her seed should ONE arise, to bruise the head of the deceiver. Thus, according to Moses, the sacred historian, the promise of a Saviour was coeval with the fall of man, and his need of a Redeemer.

The first transgression.

We are informed that the common age of man was, at that period, more than ten times what it is at present. Most of the knowledge now possessed by the human race, is derived from the experience and observation of those who have lived before them; but in those days there were no such stores of knowledge laid up. A life of several hundred years would give each man time to learn much from his own experience, and facilitate the peopling of the earth. Hence it seems very natural to suppose that God should have thus ordered things at first.

As there are no authorities to consult on this part of history, except the sacred volume, which is, or should be, in the hands of every one, we shall refer the student to that for the particular facts, mentioning only those which are more immediately connected with the course of events, as detailed by those historians, who, in distinction from the *sacred*, are termed *profane* writers,

**2348.** The most remarkable of these events is the universal deluge; when God, again, for the sins of mankind, smote the earth with a curse, and swept away at once the whole of a wicked generation, who had filled the earth with violence. Yet when the fountains of the deep were broken up, and when those who had climbed to the tops of the mountains were buried in the waste of waters, one righteous man who had in obedience to the command of God, prepared an ark for himself and his family, rode with them safely over the mighty ruin.

The Scripture account of this awful event is confirmed by the researches and discoveries of those who have examined the structure of the earth. In pursuing the modern science of geology, they find evidences of former changes and convulsions, not to be ascribed to any causes now known to be in operation. And, independently of any other testimony, they conclude that many centuries after the world was originally peopled, animals and vegetables were destroyed by an overwhelming deluge. The great geologist, Cuvier, gives it as his opinion, that "the event cannot be dated much farther back than five or six thousand years." This species of evidence, like the general train of historical events, before remarked, coincides with the date of the deluge as drawn from the Mosaic records.

A farther source of evidence is found in the traditionary accounts of people living far from each other. The Chinese, Greeks, Hindoos, and the American Indians, all agree in the general fact, that in remote antiquity, there was an inundation which overwhelmed the earth.

The ark rests  
on Ararat.

The ark of Noah rested on one of the mountains of Ararat, supposed to belong to the Caucasian chain.

When the dove had returned with the olive branch, to shew that there was peace again between God and man, and the waves of his wrath were now assuaged, the sole patriarch of the human race, and his three sons, Shem, Ham and Japheth, went forth to take possession of their wide and solitary domain.

It is in the Mosaic history only that we find an authentic account of the first peopling of the earth after the deluge. There we learn that Shem and his descendants "went forth," and that "their dwelling was" in Eastern and Southern Asia; that the dwelling of Ham and his descendants, Canaan and others, was in Western Asia and in Africa; that the "Isles of the Gentiles, meaning probably the Mediterranean, European and Caucasian regions, were divided in their lands," among the children of Japheth. The epitome of the respective characters and destinies of these races, given by Noah is very striking. "And he said, Cursed be Canaan; a servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren. And he said, Blessed be the Lord God of Shem; and Canaan shall be his servant. God shall enlarge Japheth, and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem; and Canaan shall be his servant."\* Here we may remark, that those nations which have not possessed the scriptures, have held traditions concerning gods and goddesses, and the origin of men and things, full of monstrous absurdities.

And as for those men, who have, in the pride of their own fancied wisdom, rejected the Scriptures, and undertaken to make out conjectures concerning the origin of things from probabilities, they have by their ridiculous theories made themselves the jest of succeeding ages. They have supposed changes a thousand times more miraculous than any thing related in Scripture ; and at the same time have not assigned these changes to any power adequate to their production.

Theories concerning the human race.

Modern physiologists have classed the human species under three distinct roots or races, namely, the Caucasian, the Mongol, and the Negro. The Caucasian race, in their progress, have conquered great portions of the territories, inhabited by the Mongols in Asia and America, while the Negro race are held in servitude, by their brethren.

We cannot indeed tell exactly what places on the earth's surface were designated by the names of the countries mentioned at this remote period ; for it was not until long after, that geography was cultivated as a science, or that accurate maps existed.

2247. The sacred historian, after speaking of the location of the descendants of Noah, informs us, that they all collected themselves on the plain of Shinar with the impious design to build a tower, whose top should reach to heaven. God confounded their language, and they separated by wandering to distant countries.

Tower of Babel.

We begin soon to find traces of such connexions among particular families or tribes, as gave them the name of nations. The earliest mentioned are the Assyrians, the Babylonians or Chaldeans, the Egyptians and the Jews.

## CHAPTER II.

### ASSYRIA.

That which is called Ancient History, has for so many years been related, and so often referred to, that for the sake of understanding many books, we must know something of the accounts given ; but nothing can be ascertained, farther than we have the authority of the Scripture history. We know however from other sources, that great cities did in reality exist ; and can determine from their ruins, where Babylon, Nineveh, Thebes, and others stood.

The name of Assyria, it is thought, was derived from Ashur, the son of Shem, who was supposed to have been driven out of his provinces by Nimrod, the grandson of Ham. Nimrod is

2204. said to have founded Babylon, about one hundred and fifty years after the deluge, and is believed to be the same with Belus, who was afterwards worshipped as a god.

Babylon founded.



The kingdoms of Assyria and Babylonia, it seems, were at first distinct ; but when Ninus, the son of Ashur, ascended the Assyrian throne, he conquered the adjacent provinces, and rendered Babylonia tributary. Ninus is said to have completed the magnificent city of Nineveh which his father had begun. This accomplished prince, and his beautiful and highly gifted queen Semiramis, are treated in the marvellous records of historians, as the hero and heroine of the age in which they lived.

2159.  
Nineveh built  
by Ninus.

Ninyas, their son, being an infant, at the time of his father's death, Semiramis governed the kingdom. She is said to have extended her dominions by the conquest of Ethiopia, and to have carried the terror of her arms beyond the Indus ; but her Indian expedition proving unsuccessful, she returned, with the loss of two thirds of her army. She is said to have commenced many of those noble structures, which adorned and rendered famous the city of Babylon, (which she made the capital of her kingdom) and to have employed in the execution of her plans, the labours of two millions of men.

2065.  
Ninyas.

Ninyas, the son of Semiramis, is said to have been an indolent and effeminate prince, and is charged with the crime of being accessory to his mother's death.

Amraphel and Pul.

The Scriptures mention Amraphel, king of Shinar, which was in the land of Assyria ; and afterwards Pul, who is supposed to be the father of Sardanapalus, and in whose reign the Ninevites, repented at the preaching of Jonah.

## CHAPTER III.

### EGYPT.

Menes or Misraim, the son of Ham, is supposed to have been the founder of the first Egyptian monarchy ; but of his immediate successors nothing is known. Some ages had elapsed when Busiris, it is said, built Thebes, and made it the seat of his empire. That a most wonderful city, called by this name, was built, we know, for the remains of it exist to this day ; but we have only traditionary accounts of its founder. Osymaudas, another Egyptian king, it is said, was celebrated for erecting magnificent edifices, adorning them with sculpture and painting, and for having founded the first library mentioned in history. Its title or inscription was, "*The office or treasury for the diseases of the soul.*" At this period the Egyptians had already divided the year into twelve months, each consisting of thirty days and six hours.

2188.  
Menes founds the  
first Egyptian Mon-  
archy.

First library found-  
ed.

In the reign of Mœris, the lake which bears his name, is said to have been excavated. This is one of the most wonderful works of Egypt, and was designed to remedy the inconvenience arising from the irregular inundations of the Nile. It communicated with the river by a canal, having sluices which opened or shut either the canal or the lake, as there was occasion. When the river was too high, the superfluous waters were conveyed into the lake; when too low, a sufficient quantity was let off through drains from the lake. The pyramids are supposed to have been commenced during this period.

Though little is known of the early history and internal revolutions of the kingdom of Egypt, yet it is considered as the point from which the rays of knowledge emanated to other portions of the earth, particularly to Greece, through which channel, have come to us discoveries made by the Egyptians. About 2085

2085.

Egypt invaded.

B. C. Egypt is said to have been invaded by the Shepherd-kings from Arabia or Phœnicia, who conquered Lower Egypt and Memphis, and reigned over them two hundred and sixty years. From the expulsion of the Shepherd-kings until the arrival of Joseph, the son of Jacob in Egypt, there is another chasm in Egyptian history.

2089.

Sycion founded.

In Greece, the kingdom of Sicyon was founded during this period by Ægialus.

## PERIOD II.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Calling { FIRST EPOCH, 1921 B. C. } of Abraham.

TO THE

Institution of the { SECOND EPOCH, 1491 B. C. } Exode of the Isra-  
Passover and the } elites.

### CHAPTER I.

#### THE ISRAELITES OR JEWS.

Descended from the stock of Shem, whom the prophetic benediction of Noah had set forth, as more blessed than his brethren, Abraham the father of the faithful, and the founder of the Jewish nation, dwelt in the country of the Chaldees, and retained, in the midst of an idolatrous and corrupt people, the knowledge of the true God. Journeying from thence with his family, his servants, and his flocks, he rested for a time in Haran, where

1921. Terah, his father, died. Here occurred an event  
The calling of Abra- which forms an important epocha in sacred history.  
ham. God called him, and bade him depart from his kindred, and go into the land of Canaan, that he might behold a country which his seed should inherit. The obedient Abraham with his family, including his nephew, Lot, went and sojourned in the promised land.

Abraham goes into A famine compelled him to go into Egypt in pursuit of corn. It was after this visit that Abraham, Egypt. on his return to Canaan, divided the land with Lot, Abraham pitching his tent in the plain of Mamre, and Lot receiving for his portion the valley of the Jordan.

In an invasion of the dominions of the princes inhabiting this valley by Chedorlaomer, king of Elam, Amraphel, king of Shinar, and others, Lot was taken prisoner. On this occasion Lot taken prisoner. Abraham armed his trained servants, and making a sudden and unexpected assault upon the conquerors, recovered Lot, the other prisoners, and the spoils.

The limited extent of the tribes which at this time are introduced into the records of history, may be estimated by the number Abraham led forth in this military excursion; which was only three hundred and eighteen. Not many years after this, Lot abandoned Sodom and

1897.  
Sodom destroyed by  
fire.

the other wicked cities of the plain, and they were destroyed by fire. We again find Abraham removing his tent from the plain of Mamre, and pitching it in Gerar. He here led a peaceful life, wan-

dering from place to place, as the wants of his flocks and herds required; claiming however the land of Canaan as his inheritance. Abraham dwells in Gerar.

this period, differed from the other nomadic\* or wandering tribes only, in the purity of their religion. Their government was patriarchal, and their manners simple.

Abraham had at this time two sons, Ishmael, from whom probably descended the wandering tribe of Arabia, and Isaac, his heir, whom in obedience to God's command he was about to have sacrificed upon the mountain of Moriah; but God having tested his faith, provided a victim in the place of the pious youth. Jacob, that son of Isaac who inherited the promise, had twelve sons, among whom he distin-

1729.  
Joseph sold into  
Egypt.

guished with blameable partiality, the young and amiable Joseph. His brethren therefore envied and hated him, and sold him into Egypt. Here he became prime-minister to Pharaoh the reigning king; and when his father, pressed with famine, sent his

remaining sons there to buy bread, Joseph, after having, by seeming severities, made them sensible of his power, showed them that he was too generous and noble to harbour revenge or malice against them. Weeping, he said to the trembling company, "I am Joseph your brother; be not grieved, God sent me before you to preserve life."

His father Jacob, and the whole family, soon removed to Egypt; and as the Egyptians lightly esteemed their occupations of shepherds, they had a separate country assigned them, viz. the land of Goshen, where they dwelt.

After the death of Joseph (B. C. 1635,) the Israelites were cruelly treated in Egypt for many years. Their numbers

1571.  
Moses born.

however, greatly increased. A deliverer of the nation was at length raised up in the person of Mo-

ses. It was just after the cruel command of the king of Egypt had gone forth, to slay all the male infants of the Jews, that Jochebed the wife of Amram gave birth to a son. The mother concealed him for a time, but at length, in pious trust, she committed him to God. Having made a little ark or basket, she put him in it, and placed it among the flags on the brink of the river Nile. While Miriam, his young sister, watched his fate, the princess of Egypt, Pharaoh's daughter, came with her maidens to bathe in the river. She

\*The term *nomadic* is from the Greek, signifying to live by pasturage and to dwell in tents.

looked upon the weeping child, with feelings of compassion and tenderness. At Miriam's suggestion he was for a season restored to the arms of his mother, by whom he was nursed during his infancy.

The princess then adopted him for her son, and caused him to be educated in all the learning of the Egyptians.

Moses was doubtless from his earliest youth made acquainted with the secret of his birth, and amidst the splendours of a court had thought in bitterness upon the wrongs of his kindred. Seeing an Egyptian smite a Hebrew, his indignation broke forth, and he slew him. For this offence, he was obliged to flee from the face of the incensed

1531.

Moses flees to Midian.

Pharaoh, and he went and dwelt in the land of Midian.

Here God, who had heard the cry of the oppressed, spoke to him from the burning bush, and gave him commandment to return to Egypt, for the deliverance of his chosen people. After receiving this command he was made an instrument to perform many wonderful works in the sight of Pharaoh and his court.

At length the severe judgments of God sent upon the land of Egypt, compelled Pharaoh to consent to the departure of the Hebrews. No sooner however had they left the country than, repenting of his permission, the impious monarch pursued them to the borders of the Red Sea. Here the man of God lifted his

Israelites pass over the Red Sea.

mysterious wand over the waters, and they were divided. The Israelites went forward, through the fearful pass. The Egyptians attempting to follow, the waters closed and swallowed them up.

1491.

The passover instituted.

The passover, a Jewish feast, was instituted in 1491 B. C., in commemoration of the deliverance from Egypt, and is the most remarkable of the types, which pointed out the future coming of the Saviour of the world.

## PERIOD III.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Institution of } **SECOND EPOCH, 1491 B. C.** } the Passover.

TO THE



Burial of Solomon.

Death of } **THIRD EPOCH, 980 B. C.** } Solomon.

## CHAPTER I.

### THE ISRAELITES.

When the Israelites, under the guidance of Moses, left Egypt, they directed their course towards the land of Canaan, which God had given to Abraham for his posterity. While they were encamped in the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai, **1491.** God gave them the ten commandments, or the moral law, under the most awfully impressive circumstances. Moses, under His direction, formed a civil constitution, and enacted laws for the nation. God, under his name **JEHOVAH**, was declared their king, and hence their government is said to be a *theocracy*. Purity of religious worship was the vital principle of their laws, and while these provided effectually for the security and happiness of the nation, their object was to present an insuperable barrier to polytheism, by totally forbidding all intermingling with the other nations of the earth, who, at this time, were universally idolaters.

Forty years sojourn  
in the wilderness.

After a sojourn of forty years in the wilderness, during which time the fathers of the nation had descended to their graves, and their children had become fitted by hardships to contend with the powerful tribes who were in possession of their promised inheritance; after they had acquired more knowledge of the God who protected them, and had learned obedience to his laws, they were permitted to emerge from the wilderness, and to behold spread out before them the object of their hopes, the land of promise. After having obtained a victory over the Midianites, (one of the tribes who inhabited this land) and when in sight of the promised inheritance, Moses died. He was the greatest of law-givers, the first of historians, and favoured beyond all other men with direct communications from God.

1452.

Moses dies.

Joshua succeeds  
Moses.

Joshua succeeded Moses, and during a seven years war with the powerful tribes who inhabited Canaan, he led on the Israelites to conquest, until they were in possession of a large portion of the country; when contrary to the divine command, which had directed the total extermination of the idolaters, and fatally for the future peace of the nation, the Israelites laid down their arms.

Impious men have spoken against this command of God given to the Jews. But He who creates, has a right to destroy, by storm or earthquake, or by the hands of such executioners as he shall choose; and when he gives his commands to men amidst such awful signs as dividing a sea, leading them by a pillar of fire, and giving them bread from heaven, they have no right to dispute his will. Mankind are not however to derive hence, a license to persecute and destroy one another, on pretences of divine intimations drawn from uncertain sources.

1451.

Division of the land  
of Canaan.

The attention of the Jews was soon directed to the survey of the land, and its division among the tribes. During the remainder of Joshua's life, the Israelites remained in peace. At his death no successor being

1443.

Joshua dies, and the  
reign of the Judges  
begins.

appointed, the government of Israel was exercised by the chiefs of the several tribes. This period of Jewish history is called the reign of the Judges.

The Jews now reaped the fruits of their disobedience to the divine commands. They not unfrequently relapsed into the idolatry of the surrounding nations, and when compelled to contend with the tribes who dwelt within their borders, were repeatedly delivered into their hands.

The reign of the Judges continued about 460 years. The most renowned among them were "Deborah and Barak, Gideon, Jephthah, and lastly, the prophet Samuel. In his days,

1095.

Saul made king.

the rebellious Israelites demanded a king, and Saul was appointed. He carried on wars with the Amalekites and with the Philistines, to whom the Israelites had previously been forty years in subjection.

1055.

David reigns over  
Judah.

On the death of Saul, David, the son of Jesse who had distinguished himself in the Philistine wars, was called to the throne of Judah. This young man united qualities seemingly incompatible. While in person he was beautiful almost to effeminacy, he was terrible by his valour in arms. Cool and deliberate in counsel, he yet possessed the most tender sensibility, and felt with the utmost keenness all the emotions of love, friendship, parental fondness, and finally, of that best affection of the heart, devotion to his God. His accomplishments were no less various, combining a profound knowledge of war and politics, with a skill in music which could calm the madness of Saul, and a talent for poetry of the highest order. To this talent, directed by inspiration, we owe the inimitable psalms. Such was David, beloved of God and man. Yet even he sinned; but being rebuked of God, by the mouth of the prophet Nathan, he humbled himself, and bitterly repented; hence the deep strain of humility which we find in his devotional poems.

1048.

Reigns over all Israel,  
and restores purity  
of worship.

David became sole monarch of all the tribes of Israel; and immediately on his accession, set about restoring the purity of worship, which, under Saul, had greatly declined. It was in his reign that Jebus, a strong fortress, which had remained in possession of the Jebusites, was taken. On this spot he commenced building the city of Jerusalem, where he established his royal residence.

Conquers the Philis-  
tines, &c.

David conquered the Philistines, the Edomites, the Moabites, made Syria a Jewish province, and extended his frontiers to the farthest limits of the promised land. He made costly preparations for building a temple for the worship of God; but left the execution of it to his son Solomon, who succeeded him.

Forms alliances  
with the Phœni-  
cians, a commercial  
nation.

Phœnicia, of which Tyre was the capital, was at this period a powerful and wealthy nation. With the Tyrians, David formed alliances, and from them obtained many valuable articles of merchandise. The Phœnicians were the first commercial nation. They excelled in manufactures of various kinds, and monopolized the trade of the west. They had colonies in Sicily, and the north of Africa, and some settlements east of the Persian gulf. To them is attributed the invention of letters, which, it is believed, they carried into Europe. Tyre was in its most flourishing state between 1000 and 332 B. C. The several cities of Phœnicia possessed independent kings, but united together in a league or confederacy.

1012.

Solomon reigns.

When Solomon succeeded to the throne of David, the Jewish nation had attained its height of splendour and power. This monarch found himself surrounded by bold and designing enemies; but he triumphed over them;



and the vigour of his administration rendered the first years of his reign peaceful and happy. His foreign treaties secured the peace of his kingdom; and his alliance with the king of Tyre furnished many

1004.

Solomon builds the temple.

of the splendid decorations for the magnificent temple which he erected to the Deity. Solomon was distinguished not more for the splendour of his reign, than for the wisdom which guided his councils; but

in his last years he fell into the sins of licentiousness and idolatry, and thus lost the favour of God, and brought distress upon the nation.

Jerusalem had become enriched by the residence of the court, but the country around was impoverished. At length

Loses Syria.

Solomon had the mortification of losing Syria, which threw off the yoke of Israel and became an independent nation. The peace of his declining days was farther disturbed by the insurrection of Jeroboam, and the Edomites.

980.

Dies.

After a reign of forty years, Solomon died 980 B. C.

## CHAPTER II.

### GREECE.

#### SECTION I.

1856.

Argos founded.

Greece was originally inhabited by various tribes, of whom the Pelasgi and the Hellenes were the most powerful.

The Pelasgi, a savage people, inhabited Peloponnesus, and under Inachus, their leader, are said to have founded Argos. The more

The Hellenes.

humane Hellenes, of whom Deucalion was leader, were, originally, a small tribe residing in the north of Thessaly; but becoming powerful, they spread themselves over Greece.

The Pelasgi.

The Pelasgi, who were driven from all their possessions, except Arcadia, and the region of Dodona, are said to have migrated in various directions, to Italy, and to Crete and other islands of the Mediterranean.

Probably some of them resided in Thessaly, as a district of that country has always borne their name.

Hellenes divided into four races.

The Hellenes were divided into four races, distinguished from each other by many peculiarities of language and customs. These were, the Ionians, (of whom the principal were the Athenians); the Dorians, (of whom the principal were the Spartans); the Æolians; and the Achæans. The

traditionary accounts of these early ages represent them as in a savage state, wholly ignorant of husbandry.

Cecrops, with a colony from Egypt, arrived in Attica in 1556 B. C., and having prevailed upon the inhabitants to submit to him as their king, he divided the country into twelve districts, founded the city of Athens, and established the Areopagus—a

**1556.** Athens founded a council of citizens chosen for their wisdom and property, and to whom was entrusted the power of punishing capital offences. About thirty years after the founding of Athens, Phœnician colonies settled in Crete, in Rhodes, and in several parts of Greece. It is said by

some that they brought with them letters and music, and a more accurate method of computing time than had hitherto been adopted.

**1493.** Most writers however, are of opinion, that letters were brought into Greece by a Phœnician colony, under Cadmus, who settled in Bœotia, and founded the celebrated city of Thebes.

**1400.** The laws and institutions ascribed to Minos, who called himself the son of Jupiter, and reigned over Crete, were celebrated for their wisdom among surrounding nations, and in some instances imitated by them.

Attica, freed from the bloody wars which disturbed the other states of Greece, made more rapid advances towards civilization. On account of the security of its situation, it became a refuge for the wealthy from all parts of Greece, and the increase of its population early enabled it to send colonies into Asia.

Amphictyon the third, king of Athens, established the celebrated assembly bearing his name. The Amphictyonic council was a confederacy of twelve cities, whose petty princes met at Delphi, twice a year, to concert measures for their common safety, and to settle disputes arising between members of the union. They adopted, at this early period, the rule that none of the states belonging to the confederacy should be destroyed by the others. Thus, in remote antiquity, do we find the germ of the only legitimate principle of union among different states, for the purposes of peace and mutual protection. The United States of America exhibit this principle in greater perfection, and on a more magnificent scale; and the philanthropist may indulge the hope, that a time will come, when all civilized and Christian nations, shall appoint delegates to meet and amicably settle such disputes as may arise among them.

About this time occurred the celebrated expedition of the Argonauts,—adventurers, who, according to ancient tradition, went to Colchis in search of the “golden fleece,” which, by some is supposed to mean the riches of that kingdom. This bold enterprise was conducted by the heroic Jason, who, gaining the affections of Medea, the daughter of the king, a beautiful but cruel sorceress, obtained by means of her enchantments the object of his search. Leaving a colony

on the shores of the Euxine, he departed, carrying away the golden fleece, and the beautiful sorceress, whom he had married. Afterwards deserting her for Creusa, daughter of the king of Athens, Medea, in jealousy and rage, put her own children to death, that she might be revenged of Jason, their father.

The Greeks appear to have united parts of the Religion of the Egyptian and Phœnician religions with that of the Greeks. the original Pelasgian tribe. The names of the Grecian gods were nearly all Egyptian. Although there were priests dedicated to the service of particular divinities, they were not, like the priests of Egypt, a separate and distinct class of persons. When not engaged in the service of the divinity, nothing distinguished them from the rest of the citizens.

1193. The siege of Troy is related on the authority of the poet Homer.  
Siege of Troy.

Greece was at this time divided into many small states, of which Mycenæ and Argos were the principal. Laconia, and the greater part of Messenia belonged to the division of Menelaus, king of Sparta. Achaia, Argolis, Corinth, and Mycenæ, were under the government of Agamemnon, the brother of Menelaus; and the rest of Peloponnesus was governed by petty chiefs dependent on him.

The offence of Paris, the son of Priam, king of Troy, in stealing away the beautiful Helen, the wife of Menelaus, after he had been hospitably entertained by her husband, roused the indignation of the Grecian states, and prompted them to unite in a league in order to rescue the princess, and punish the offender. The Grecian confederates assembled, at Aulis in Bœotia, an army of more than 100,000 warriors, and embarked in 1200 vessels. Agamemnon was the leader of the host, among whom was Menelaus, who had succeeded Tyn-dareus the father of Helen, and was now king of Sparta; the wise Ulysses from Ithaca, old Nestor from Pylos, Ajax Telamon, and Ajax the less; but the lion of the host was the beautiful and brave Achilles, who, according to fable, was rendered invulnerable by the goddess Thetis, his mother, who dipped him, when an infant, in the river Styx. His heel, however, by which she held him, was not thus protected, and here he was mortally wounded by Paris, whose brother Hector, Achilles had slain.

At length, after the long siege of ten years,  
1184. the Greeks took and burned Troy and recovered  
Troy burnt. Helen.

The Greeks, on their return from Troy, found their country in a distracted and suffering condition. During the absence of their kings, others had assumed their authority; and for a series of years nothing is heard of Greece, but a continual succession of wars and disorders.

## SECTION II.

1104.

War of the Heraclidæ.

About eighty years after the destruction of Troy, occurred the war of the Heraclidæ. This was a war between the families of Perseus and Pelops, who had anciently contended for the sovereignty of the Peloponnesus. Hercules, the most renowned of the Grecian heroes, was the great grandson of Perseus, and from him the Perseid family were called the Heraclidæ. They had been expelled from the Peloponnesus by the Pelopidæ (or the race of Pelops) and were now princes of Doris, a small rugged tract of country among the mountains of Æta and Parnassus. After two unsuccessful attempts

They conquer the Pelopidæ.

to regain their inheritance, they at length by the aid of the Ætolians and Dorians, conquered the Pelopidæ, and made themselves masters of the Peloponnesus. The principal chiefs divided the cities by lot. Sparta fell to Aristodemus, who dying, Eurysthenes and Procles, his infant twins were proclaimed joint kings of Lacedæmon, and each became the founder of a royal race. Of the old inhabitants, some sought refuge among their Ionian brethren at Athens; great numbers emigrated, and the rest were made slaves. From this time the Dorians, conquerors of the Peloponnesus, became powerful in Greece, and the city of Sparta acquired a supremacy over the whole country.

Peloponnesian colonies.

Some of the Peloponnesian fugitives founded colonies in Asia Minor, and on the islands Lesbos and Tenedos. On the continent, they built twelve cities, of which Smyrna was the principal; and on the island of Lesbos, five, of which the largest was Mytilene.

The Dorians were indignant against the Athenians for having given refuge to the inhabitants who had fled from Peloponnesus; and no sooner had they possessed themselves of the peninsula, than they determined to revenge the affront by invading Attica.

Dorians invade Attica.

The oracle of Apollo at Delphi\* had promised success to their

1070.

Codrus.

arms, on condition they should not kill Codrus, the Athenian king. Codrus, on learning this, disguised himself as a peasant, entered the Dorian camp, provoked a quarrel, and was killed. On the news of his death, the superstitious army of the invaders immediately retreated. A dis-

\* The oracle at the city of Delphi was established at an unknown and very remote period of antiquity. This city was near the gulf of Corinth, in a solitary recess of Mount Parnassus, where was a cavern, from which arose sulphureous gas, supposed to possess the power of imparting prophetic inspiration. A female called the Pythia, seated upon a three legged stool, called a tripod, was exposed to the fumes of the gas, and in this condition her wild and unmeaning responses were recorded by the cunning priests who reported them to suit their own purposes. An immense power was thus wielded by the priests of Apollo, who ministered at this altar of superstition for a series of ages; and enjoyed the wealth here lavished by a deluded people.

1060.

The office of king  
abolished at Athens,  
and that of Archon  
created.

pute arising between the sons of Codrus respecting the succession, it was decided that no person was worthy to succeed that magnanimous sovereign. The office of king was therefore abolished, and that of Archon substituted in its stead. To this office, Medon, the eldest son of Codrus was first elected. The office was to be held during life, and to be hereditary ; but the Archon was made accountable to the assembly of the people.

1055.

Ionians found colo-  
nies in Asia Minor.

About this time the Ionians founded colonies in Asia Minor. They took possession of part of Lydia and Caria which, from them, received the name of Ionia, and of the islands of Samos and Chios. They built many cities, and established in each an independent government.

## PERIOD IV.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Death of { THIRD EPOCH, 980 B. C. } Solomon.

TO THE



Romulus marking out the limits of Rome.

Foundation { FOURTH EPOCH, 752 B. C. } of Rome.

### CHAPTER I.

#### THE HEBREWS OR JEWS.

980.

Rehoboam.

On the accession of Rehoboam, the son of Solomon, to the throne, the provinces of the Jewish nation were grievously oppressed. The alliance which Solomon had formed with Tyre, and the commerce which this opened to his people, had not generally improved their condition, although it had increased the wealth of the capital and of the court. When the people pressed the weak and haughty Rehoboam to redress their grievances, his contemptuous reply was, "My father made your yoke heavy, but I will add to your yoke."

795.

Revolt of ten tribes.

Ten tribes revolted, and recalling Jeroboam, the son of Nebat (who, after an unsuccessful insurrection during the life of Solomon, had fled into Egypt,) they declared him their king. Judah and Benjamin alone adhered

791.  
Sesac invades  
Judea.

to Rehoboam. In this reign, Sesac, king of Egypt, invaded Judea, pillaged the temple, and carried away all the treasures of Rehoboam into Egypt.

Jeroboam feeling himself insecure upon the throne of Israel, and fearing that the national worship at Jerusalem would draw away his subjects, "caused Israel to sin," by establishing in his kingdom a species of idolatry. The division of the Jewish people occasioned constant wars among themselves which tended to their final overthrow and destruction.

963.  
Abijah reigns in Ju-  
dea.

Rehoboam, after a reign of seventeen years, was succeeded by his son Abijah. During the three years of his reign, he made an attempt to recover Israel, and obtained a victory over Jeroboam.

955.  
Asa succeeds Abi-  
jah.

Asa, the successor of Abijah, opposed idolatry, and encouraged the subjects of Jeroboam to return to their obedience, and to come up to the great national feasts at Jerusalem. During the reign of the pious

Asa, Judea was  
918.

peaceful, prosperous, and happy. In the mean time the ten tribes receded farther and farther from the religion of their ancestors, until, in the reign of Ahab, they openly built and consecrated temples to

Ahab reigns in  
Israel.

the worship of idols.

War between Syria  
and Israel.

About this time the king of Syria declared war with Israel, but his invasion was successfully repelled by Ahab.

914.  
Jehosaphat reigns  
in Judea.

Asa, king of Judah, after a long reign, was succeeded by his worthy son, Jehosaphat. The animosity which arose in consequence of the separation of Judah and Israel, had now in a measure subsided,

and Jehosaphat entered into an alliance with the king of Israel. To cement more firmly the union, he married his son Jehoram to Athaliah, daughter of Ahab. The fiery John (who had succeeded to the

884.  
John destroys the  
family of Ahab.

throne of Israel), determined to extirpate the family of Ahab, and slew, among others, Ahaziah, the king of Judah, and son of Athaliah. This cruel woman

Athaliah's cruelty.

then caused his children to be put to death, that she might reign in Jerusalem. But the designs of the Lord respecting the seed of David were not thus

to be frustrated. One infant was saved from the massacre by the compassionate Jehoshaba, wife of Jehoida the high priest. He was concealed for six years; and at the age of seven proclaimed king in the temple, by the name of Joash. Athaliah heard the shout, and rushed into the temple, crying treason! treason! But she was seized and put to death.

Repeated wars between Israel and Syria, the distressing siege of Samaria, and internal dissensions both in Israel and Judah, make up this period of Jewish history.

## CHAPTER II.

## GREECE.

ATHENS was now under the government of hereditary Archons, and gradually acquiring power and rank among the states of Greece.

884.

Lycurgus.

At this time, Lycurgus appeared in Sparta. He was of the family of the Heraclidæ, of the line of Procles, and commonly reckoned the tenth in descent from Hercules. By his magnanimity in preserving the crown of Sparta for the infant son of a deceased brother, when it was offered to himself, he obtained among the people great and deserved popularity; and during the minority of his nephew, the government was placed in his hands.

He gave to Sparta a new and singular constitution, the chief aim of which was to banish luxury, instil public spirit in the place of private interest, and to increase the power of the state by making it a nation of soldiers. He procured a new and equal distribution of land, and compelled every citizen to eat at a public table, where the food was of the simplest kind, and the conversation grave and instructive. Lycurgus banished commerce and all superfluous arts from Sparta, and forbade the use of any other money than iron coin. He established a senate of twenty-eight members, to be elected by the people, over whom the two kings of Sparta were to preside. He also established an assembly of the people, with the power of repealing or sanctioning the decrees of the senate. The children of the Spartans were taken from their parents, as the property of the state; the males were trained to arms, and the females rendered hardy and vigorous by exercise and temperance. But the institutions of Lycurgus were far from promoting the social affections and domestic virtues. Mothers were taught to rejoice when their sons fell in defence of their country; and courage was placed first among the virtues.\*

The Lacedæmonians were forbidden to follow agriculture, or to cultivate mechanic arts. All servile offices were assigned to the Helots† or slaves, who were treated with great severity. Having bound his countrymen by an oath, to observe his laws until he returned, Lycurgus left Sparta, and returned no more; thus seeking to ensure the permanency of his institutions by a voluntary banishment. During the 500 years in which the Lacedæmonians adhered to these laws, they were a powerful people.

\* Theft, which is said to have been encouraged by law, was more nominal than real. The youth were, indeed, directed to steal menses, herbs, &c. from the public halls and gardens; but, if detected, they were severely punished. The design was, by teaching them to become dexterous and cunning, to render them more fit for the stratagems of war.

† These were so called from Helos, a Laconian town, subdued by the Spartans, who took the inhabitants prisoners, and reduced them to the condition of slavery.



Lycurgus having laboured for the good of his own state, travelled over the other portions of Greece ; he beheld with delight the prosperous condition of her Asiatic colonies, and discovered a great treasure in the poems of Homer, before unknown to the Dorian conquerors of the Peloponnesus.

886.

Lycurgus finds the poems of Homer.

It has been suggested that Lycurgus committed suicide. According to Plutarch, he put an end to his life by severe abstinence. Lucian says, he died a natural death at the age of eighty-five.

## PERIOD V.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Foundation { FOURTH EPOCH, 732 B. C. } of Rome.

TO THE



Alexander giving his ring to Perdiccas.

Death of { FIFTH EPOCH, 323 B. C. } Alexander the Great.

## CHAPTER I.

### SECTION I.

#### ASSYRIA, JUDEA AND ISRAEL.

747. The sovereign power of Assyria was now in the hands of the profligate Sardanapalus, the last and worst of an effeminate race of princes.

Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, headed a revolt of the oppressed and murmuring people. Sardanapalus, besieged in Nineveh, his capital, and too weak to attempt defence, ordered the erection of a funeral pile, in his own palace, on which he burnt himself with his wives and treasure. Thus ended

747.

Assyrian empire  
dissolved.Three kingdoms  
raised upon its  
ruins.Tiglath-Pileser king  
of Nineveh.

the first Assyrian empire ; having existed more than 1450 years.

Upon its ruins were raised three kingdoms, Babylon, Nineveh, and Media. Belesis, or Nabonassar, was the first monarch of Babylon, and to him succeeded Mérodach Baladan. Tiglath-Pileser was the first king of Nineveh after the destruction of the ancient Assyrian empire. It was he of whom Ahaz, king of Judah, solicited aid, when Judea was invaded by the kings of Israel and Damascus. Tiglath-Pileser rejoicing in an opportunity of extending the borders of his kingdom, immediately marched an army into Palestine, invaded Syria, possessed himself of Damascus, and killed its king ; humbled the king of Israel, and took possession of all the lands on the farther side of the Jordan.

Ahaz having thus, in freeing Judah from the Syrians and Israelites, introduced into it a more dangerous enemy, was, even now, obliged to pay him tribute. In order further to weaken his power, the Assyrian king left him to struggle alone with the Edomites, his most dangerous enemies.

729.

Shalmaneser suc-  
ceeds Tiglath-  
Pileser and besieges  
Samaria.

721.

The ten tribes carri-  
ed into captivity.

On the death of Tiglath-Pileser, the throne of Assyria was occupied by a still more ambitious prince. Shalmaneser having observed in Hoshea the king of Israel, (whom he had subdued,) a disposition to throw off the Assyrian yoke, immediately marched into Palestine, and besieged Samaria, the capital of the ten tribes. This city after a resistance of three years was compelled to surrender, and the ten tribes were carried into captivity. Great numbers of them were transplanted into a mountainous region in the interior of Asia. From this period they ceased to exist as an independent kingdom, and history is silent with respect to their fate.

After the destruction of Samaria, Shalmaneser besieged the more wealthy city of Tyre.

This siege, in which the Tyrians resisted with invincible courage for five years, at length came to an end by his death.

## SECTION II.

717.

Sennacherib ascends  
the throne of As-  
syria.

Hezekiah the

Besieges Pelusium.

Demands the surren-  
der of Jerusalem.

Sennacherib who succeeded to the throne of Assyria, devised a scheme of conquest which not only included Judea, but extended to the remotest provinces of Egypt. His first act was to demand of Hezekiah the reigning king of Judah, a heavy tribute. After this he marched his powerful army into Egypt, and besieged Pelusium. The Egyptians made a vigorous resistance. He returned and sent again to Hezekiah, demanding the surrender of Jerusalem. The inhabitants were in consternation. The fate of the

ten tribes was vivid in their recollection, and they looked fearfully forward to the destruction of their beloved city. The prophet Isaiah exhorted the king to trust in the God of Israel, assuring him that the power of the Assyrian should be broken. At midnight the Lord sent to the camp the angel of death, and in the morning one hundred and eighty five thousand of the proud Assyrians lay dead upon the plain.\* The humbled Sennacherib hastened to return to his capital, and was soon after assassinated by his sons.

His host destroyed  
by the angel of the  
Lord.

Sennacherib assassinated.

696.

Manasseh succeeds  
Hezekiah.

680.

Esarhaddon king of  
Assyria.

He reunites Babylon  
to the Assyrian empire.

677.

Takes Jerusalem  
and carries away  
Manasseh.

649.

Amon succeeds Manasseh.

609.

Josiah killed.

Hezekiah, whose whole reign had been marked by efforts to restore the purity of the national religion, and to promote the prosperity of his kingdom, was succeeded by his son, the imperious and profligate Manasseh.

Esarhaddon, the youngest son of Sennacherib, was now seated upon the throne of Assyria. Taking advantage of the internal troubles of Babylon, he made himself master of that city, reuniting it to the Assyrian empire. He then directed his arms to the recovery of Syria and Palestine, which after the defeat of Sennacherib had thrown off their allegiance. His next object was to pursue the plan of colonization, commenced by Shalmaneser, removing from the country the remnant of the Israelites, and transplanting at the same time into the cities of Samaria an idolatrous people from the countries beyond the Euphrates. He took Jerusalem, and carried away Manasseh, the wicked king of Judah, prisoner; but after a few years he released him and restored him to his kingdom.

Manasseh was succeeded by Amon, who fell a victim to a conspiracy among his own servants. His successor was the pious Josiah, who restored the purity of the national worship, repaired the temple, and extirpated idolatry from the land. But the virtues of Josiah suspended only for a time, the fatal decree which had gone forth against a rebellious people. Palestine had now become the theatre on which the rival kingdoms of Assyria and Egypt contested their claims to sovereign power, and thus was rendered the scene of many sanguinary conflicts. In the wars between Necho king of Egypt and the Assyrians, Josiah opposed the passage of the Egyptians through Judea. A battle was fought between him and the Egyptian king in the valley of Megiddo; the Jews were overthrown, and Josiah received a wound of which he soon after died.

Necho then proceeded to Assyria, and after making some conquests, he returned to Jerusalem, took that city, dethroned Jehoahaz,

\* Herodotus in describing the Assyrian invasion of Egypt, attributes the overthrow of Sennacherib's host to the destruction of their warlike weapons, which were gnawed in pieces by an immense number of mice sent by one of the Egyptian deities. Thus we find the facts of a miracle in this case confirmed by the records of the Pagans.

the youngest son of Josiah, and placed Jehoiakim on the throne. The success of Necho in his war against the Babylonians, encouraged the Syrians and Jews to throw off the Assyrian yoke. Nebuchadnezzar was now associated with his father, Nabopolassar, in the government of Assyria; he was the most powerful prince that had yet reigned over the Assyrian empire. He continued the war with Egypt. His first success was the recovery of Carchemish, a city which commanded the passage of the Euphrates, and which Necho had taken from the Assyrians. Nebuchadnezzar then marched to-

606.

Nebuchadnezzar  
takes away the trea-  
sure from the tem-  
ple.

wards Syria and Palestine, and reunited both provinces to his dominions. He took Jerusalem, and carried away many captives, and much treasure, including the sacred vessels of the temple.

Mattaniah or Zedekiah, the third in succession from Jehoiakim, attempting to effect the independence of Jerusalem, Nebuchadnezzar appeared before the walls of that city.

588.

Nebuchadnezzar  
again takes Jerusa-  
lem.

The inhabitants, trusting to expected succour from the Egyptians, maintained an obstinate resistance for nearly a year. The city was at length taken by storm, when the vengeance of the Babylonians was wreaked upon its inhabitants. The children

of the Jewish king were murdered in the presence of their father, his eyes were then put out, and he was carried captive to Babylon. The inhabitants and the remaining treasures were carried away, and the temple, the buildings and the fortifications, levelled to the dust.

Four years after the destruction of Jerusalem, Nebuchadnezzar again marched into Syria and besieged Tyre. But it was not until after thirteen years that he made himself master of that strong and opulent city. Before he obtained possession of it, the inhabitants retired with their most valuable effects to an island, a short distance from the city, where they built a new town. Enraged at the length

Invades and ravages  
Egypt.

of time spent before Tyre, and at the loss of its spoils, Nebuchadnezzar invaded Egypt, and was unconsciously made the instrument of God's wrath

upon the impious Pharaoh.

Egypt, until this time, had been among the most powerful, and warlike of the nations, but was now rent with intestine divisions, and weakened by rebellion. Taking advantage of this, the Babylonian monarch marched through it, his footsteps being everywhere marked with the most horrible devastation. He destroyed the inhabitants, and loaded himself with their spoils. Forty years were not sufficient to repair the ravages which he made.

Nebuchadnezzar's  
punishment.

On his return to Babylon, his mind being lifted up, and his heart hardened with pride, the Almighty deposed him from his kingly throne, and drove him from the dwellings of men. His body was wet with the dew of heaven, and he ate the food of beasts, until he knew that God ruleth over the kingdoms of men.

## CHAPTER II.

## MEDIA.

On the dissolution of the ancient Assyrian empire, Media, which then became an independent nation, was divided into tribes, and had no settled form of government.

710.

Dejoces establishes  
the empire of Media.

Dejoces established the first monarchy. His efforts were directed to the improvement of the savage and licentious manners of his people; and he succeeded, during a reign of fifty-three years, in preserving the nation in peace. He founded the city of Ecbatana, and made it the capital of his kingdom. Dejoces was succeeded by his son Phraortes.

658.

Phraortes conquers  
Persia.

Phraortes extended the kingdom of Media, by the conquest of Persia, and subjected to his dominions almost all Upper Asia, from Mount Taurus to the river Halys. He attacked the Assyrians, but was defeated on the plains of Ragna by Nebuchadnezzar, the Assyrian king, who then marched into the heart of Media, destroyed Ecbatana, and having taken Phraortes prisoner, caused him to be put to death.

634.

Cyaxares, his suc-  
cessor, besieges Ni-  
neveh.

Cyaxares, his son and successor, invaded Assyria, defeated the Assyrian army, and laid siege to Nineveh. But he was recalled by the danger which gathered over his own kingdom. A formidable people, known by the name of Scythians, had invaded Media, and threatened to overspread all Asia. Cyaxares hastened to the relief of his people, but was vanquished by the barbarians.

624.

Conquered by the  
Scythians.

For the space of twenty-eight years, the Scythians spread desolation through all Upper Asia; they overran Palestine, and advanced towards Egypt, from the invasion of which they were diverted by valuable gifts from the king.

The Medes, unable to expel them by open force, at length resorted to stratagem. The principal Scythians were invited to a feast, where they were made intoxicated

Medes massacre the  
Scythians at a feast.

cred. The remainder fleeing to the king of Lydia, (a kingdom now rising to consequence) he afforded them protection.

Cyaxares at war  
with the Lydians.

This embroiled Cyaxares in a war with the Lydians, which, after five years of nearly equal success on both sides, was terminated by peace. Cyaxares no sooner found himself established in his kingdom, and again at peace, than his thoughts reverted to his favourite enterprise, the destruction of Nineveh.

He now entered into alliance with Nabopolassar, who had revolted from the king of Assyria, and established himself as an independent king in Babylon. Their united armies laid siege to Niveveh, and effected its entire destruction. Saracus, the reigning king, was killed, and Cyaxares soon made himself master of all the other cities of the kingdom.

## CHAPTER III.

### GREECE.

**752.** The States of Greece, during the early part of this period, were engaged in wars among themselves.

States of Greece at war with each other.

The Spartans, under the laws of Lycurgus, had increased in power, and become the terror of the surrounding states. The Argives (people of Argos), the Arcadians, and especially the Messenians, suffered from their desire of conquest. Their war with Messenia continued twenty years, during which they entirely subdued that nation. For forty years the Messenians remained in bondage.

**743.**

First Messenian war.

**685.**

Second Messenian war.

At length, Aristomenes, a powerful leader, arose, and attempted the rescue of his country. The second Messenian war commenced in 685, and continued fourteen years. After having fought, three years, with great bravery, and defeated the Spartans in several engagements, Aristomenes was forced to throw himself into Eira, a strong fortress near the sea. Here he had maintained himself during a siege of eleven years, when the Lacedæmonian commander, finding a post which had been deserted by its guard one stormy night, occupied it with his troops. Aristomenes struggled, two days and three nights, to regain it. Finding himself foiled, and the people suffering with hunger, he

Aristomenes.

formed a column, in the centre of which he put the women and children, and resolutely demanded a passage out of the place. His enemies saw that he was rendered desperate, and suffered him to retreat to Arcadia. A part of the Messenians were made helots or slaves, a part received the protection of their allies, the Arcadians, but many migrated to Italy and Sicily, and there founded Rhegium and Messina.

Messenians found Rhegium and Messina.

Athens was gradually assuming a republican form of government. After a succession of twelve hereditary archons, the term of office

684.  
Form of the Athenian government changed.

624.  
Draco forms a code of laws.

was limited to ten years, the archons still to be chosen from the family of Codrus. Nine archons were subsequently chosen in place of one, and the term of office limited to one year. They were at first elected by the suffrages of the people, afterwards by lot among the nobles. Faction and discord prevailing, a reform was needed, and a code of laws was made by Draco. By this code the smallest offence and the most enormous crime were alike punished with death or banishment. It has, very properly, been termed the bloody code.

598.  
Solon appointed archon.

Laws of Solon.

Thirty years after Draco, when the Athenians, by the rigour and injustice of his laws, were plunged into confusion and misery, the wise Solon was appointed Archon, with the power of reforming the state. His first attempt was to settle the quarrels between the rich and the poor. In order to remove the evils which arose from the debts of the poor, and the power of their creditors, he lowered the interest of money, raised its nominal value, and deprived creditors of power over the persons of debtors or those of their families. He divided the people into four classes according to their wealth. Only the first three classes, composed of the rich, could hold public offices; but the fourth had an equal vote in the assembly of the people.

The nine archons were continued as chief magistrates, but associated with them, was a council or senate, and nothing could be brought before the people which had not been first discussed in this body. The members of the senate were chosen annually by lot from the first three classes of citizens, and consisted of four hundred persons. The assembly of the people comprised the four classes of citizens, and possessed the power of deciding upon war or peace, of choosing the magistrates, and of deliberating upon the subjects proposed by the senate.

594.  
Power of the Areopagus increased.

Solon restored and augmented the power of the Areopagus, making it the supreme court of judicature. It was composed of those who had held the office of archon with honour and dignity, and its members retained their place for life. The reputation of this court for justice and integrity was so great, that, it is said, even the Romans referred causes to its decision. The laws of Solon allowed the Athenians to dispose of their estates by will; previous to this time no such provision had been made.

But these wise regulations did not long restrain the restless spirit of the Athenians. In a few years, Pisistratus, a descendant of the ancient kings, and a relation of Solon, by his insinuating manners, his great pretences to zeal for equality among the citizens, and abhorrence of all innovation, had made himself the most popular man in Athens.

560.  
Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens.

By an artifice he succeeded in obtaining privileges of a peculiar kind. Appearing one day in the market place, bloody and covered with wounds,



he declared he had received them from his enemies, by whom he had been way-laid. The people believed his life had been thus exposed in consequence of his zeal for the public good. An assembly was called, and a guard of fifty soldiers voted to him for the security of his person. Soon after this, augmenting the number of his guard, he seized the Acropolis, or citadel, exiled all who would not submit to him, and made himself tyrant\* of Athens.

Pisistratus was twice expelled, but finding means to reinstate himself, he reigned seventeen years in peace. He governed in a mild and equable manner, not attempting any farther alterations in the constitution of Solon. He established a public library, and made the Athenians acquainted with the poems of Homer, which he collected, and ordered to be read at the public feasts.

521. Pisistratus was succeeded by his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus. Their united reign, at first popular, was, after a few years, terminated by the assassination of Hipparchus. The assassins were Harmodius and his intimate friend Aristogiton. They chose, for the scene of the murder, a religious festival. They were both slain in the tumult which ensued.

From this time, the government of Hippias exhibits a jealous and cruel policy. The Alcmeonidæ, a powerful family who had been banished from Athens, uniting with Cleomenes, the reigning king of Sparta, advanced at the head of a large army, and joined by other exiles who had suffered from the cruelty of Hippias, laid siege to Athens. Hippias and his family fled from Attica and went to Sardis, then under the government of Darius, king of Persia.

But the expulsion of the tyrants did not immediately restore peace to Athens. Clisthenes, one of the Alcmeonidæ, and Isagoras, one of the principal citizens, placed themselves at the head of two considerable factions.

510. The former won the people to his party, while the latter called in to his aid the Lacedæmonians. Clisthenes, while in power, undermined the constitution of Solon, by introducing certain alterations pleasing to the populace. He increased the number of tribes from four to ten, and enacted that fifty should be chosen from each tribe to constitute the senate, from this time, called the council of five hundred.

Council of five hundred created.

\* The Greeks employed the word *tyrant*, in a sense different from its modern acceptance. With them, it denoted a person who had obtained the sovereignty in a republic, but it had no reference to the abuse of power.

## CHAPTER IV.

## PERSIA.—THE EMPIRE OF CYRUS.

## SECTION I.

Persia, until the time of Cyrus, consisted of twelve tribes, who inhabited only one province of the vast territory which has since borne this name. Of these tribes, the Pasargadæ, to which Camby-ses, the father of Cyrus belonged, was the most noble. The Per-sians inhabited a mountainous region, were hardy and vigorous, and the most warlike of all the nations subject to the Medes.

The power of Asia was at this time divided between Babylon, Media, and Lydia. Cræsus, the king of Lydia, was renowned for his wealth, and had subjected to his power all the colonies in Asia Minor. With the exception of Lycia and Cilicia, his dominions extended over all Asia west of the Halys. Babylon, under the suc-cessors of Nebuchadnezzar, had been declining in power.

Cyrus unites the  
kingdoms of Media  
and Persia.

Cyrus was the son of Camby-ses, a Persian noble, and Mandane, the daughter of Astyages, king of Media. The Persian tribes united in him, as their chief or king, and he effected the union of the Per-

sian and Median kingdoms. The victories of Cyrus over the Ar-menians aroused the jealousy of the neighbouring sovereigns. A coalition was formed between the kings of Babylon, Egypt, and Lydia, and a battle fought between the Persians and their allied forces at Thymbra, a city of Lydia, in which the fortune of Cyrus prevailed. He soon

Battle of Thymbra,  
in which Cyrus is  
victorious.

548.

Cyrus conquers Sar-  
dia.

made himself master of Sardis, the capital of Lydia, seized upon the vast riches of Cræsus, and took him prisoner. Thus terminated the kingdom of

Lydia. To render his conquests more secure, Cy-rus sought to extinguish the national spirit of the Lydians, by the introduction of a foreign dress; and to weaken their warlike habits, by luxury and effeminacy.

Having reduced all Asia Minor, he now carried the war into the Babylonian empire, and in a pitched battle, defeated Labyactus, called

Besieges Babylon.

in scripture Belshazzar. Belshazzar retreated to his capital, which Cyrus immediately besieged.

Thinking it impossible to take the city by storm or siege, he devised the following stratagem. At evening he ordered his men to open certain great receptacles prepared by former sovereigns to draw off the water of the river in seasons of inundation. The channel of the Euphrates soon became dry. Belshazzar, secure in the strength of his city, had that night made a great feast for his nobles, and in the disorder of the festival, the gates of brass which had closed the descent to the river, had been left open; the troops of Cyrus, passing over its bed, were soon in the heart of the city.

In the mean time, the effeminate monarch had been awakened from his dream of pleasure and security, by a mysterious appearance. A hand had written on the wall in characters of divine vengeance—"Mene tekem." Daniel, severe in youthful sanctity, fearlessly read to him their prophetic import, "Thou art weighed in the balance, and found wanting." At this dread moment, the troops of Cyrus were at hand, to verify the words of the prophet." Almost without

resistance, they took the city, and slew the sentenced Belshazzar slain. Belshazzar.

538.

Babylonian empire  
in the hands of the  
Medes and Persians.

ernment himself.

The temple at Jeru-  
salem rebuilt.

The Babylonian empire now passed into the hands of the Medes and Persians. Cyrus gave the government of Babylon to Darius, a Mede of the royal family. After his death, Cyrus resumed the gov-  
ernment himself. He permitted the Jews, who were still in captivity in Babylon, to return to Jerusalem, and not only assisted them in rebuilding their temple, which had been destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but restored

its sacred vessels.

Cyrus extended his dominions from the river Indus to the Ægean Sea, and from the Caspian and Euxine Seas, to Ethiopia and the Sea of Arabia. He was a great and virtuous king, and his name was long held in reverence among the nations of the east.

529.

Cyrus killed.

He was killed in an expedition against the Scythians.

Cambyzes reigns.

Cambyzes, his son, succeeded him. This cruel prince extended his dominions by the conquest of Egypt, and put to death its king. From a jealousy of his brother Smerdis, he ordered his assassination. During the absence of Cambyzes, a Magian calling himself Smerdis, pretending to have escaped the intended assassination, seized upon the throne of Persia. The imposition was at length discovered, and Smerdis dethroned and killed.

522.

Darius Hystaspes  
ascends the throne.

The royal family becoming extinct by the death of Cambyzes, Darius Hystaspes, a Persian nobleman, was raised to the throne. He recovered Babylon, which had revolted from the Persian dominion. After the reduction of Babylon, Darius made preparations for a war against the Scythians.

Scythians.

The Scythians who inhabited the north of Europe, though a barbarous, were reputed a virtuous people. They were unacquainted with the arts and sciences, ignorant of agriculture, without settled habitations, and like the nomadic tribes of Asia, wandered from country to country, as the wants of their families and flocks required; removing their wives and children in a kind of waggons covered with the skins of animals, which at other times formed their simple habitations.

## SECTION II.

496. Darius, with a formidable army, having passed the Danube, left his bridge of boats in charge of his Ionian allies, with permission, if he did not come back in three months, to destroy the bridge, and return to their country.

The Scythians, on learning that Darius had crossed the Danube, sent away their wives and children with their flocks, to the northern part of their country. They then laid waste the region through which the Persians must pass, consuming the forage, and destroying the wells and springs.

Having done this, they marched towards their enemy, not with the view of giving him battle, but of drawing him into an ambuscade. Darius advanced. At length a herald from the Scythian prince appeared, bringing to him a present of a bird, a mouse, a frog, and five arrows. One of his officers expounded the enigma, which the messenger refused to do. "Know," said he, "that unless you can fly in the air like birds, or hide yourself in the earth like mice, or swim the water like frogs, you shall in no wise be able to escape the arrows of the Scythians."

The Persian army, amid the barren steppes of the North, and annoyed by the wily enemy, becoming disheartened, their monarch was compelled to relinquish his imprudent enterprise, and retrace his steps towards the Danube.

The Persians having, as usual, lighted fires in their camp, the Scythians did not discover their retreat till morning, when they immediately despatched a body of troops to persuade the Ionians to destroy the bridge over the Danube. Being acquainted with the passes and shortest routes through the country, they arrived there before Darius and his army.

A consultation of the Grecian chiefs was held, many of whom, believing that the destruction of Darius would procure the future independence of their own states, were in favour of destroying the bridge. It had been the policy of the Persian monarchs to establish tyrants, or kings, in the Persian colonies, and cities of Asia-Minor, to whom the people unwillingly submitted. Hystœus, tyrant of Miletus, now represented to the other chiefs the danger of destroying the power of Darius, which was the only safeguard of their own. He prevailed, and Darius recrossed the Danube in safety.

Leaving Megabysus, one of his generals, with part of his army, destined for the conquest of Thrace and Macedonia, he retired with the rest of his troops to Sardis. Macedonia and Thrace were soon conquered, and added to the Persian dominions.

About this period the Ionians, who had for some time been subject to the Persians, headed by Aristagoras, tyrant of Miletus,

revolted from Darius, and despatched ambassadors to the several states of Greece to implore their aid. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, refused to engage in the war, but the Athenians, offended with Darius

Athenians enter into  
alliance with the  
Ionians.

for having given refuge to Hippias, their banished king, and demanding his restoration to the throne, now willingly entered into an alliance with the Ionians.

To render the revolt against the Persians more formidable, by engaging the people heartily in their cause, Aristagoras travelled through all Ionia, prevailing upon the tyrants to restore the freedom of the cities, of which he himself set an example by liberating Miletus.

Aristagoras liberates  
Miletus.

In the third year of the war, the Ionians collected a fleet, and sailed for Ephesus. Leaving their ships at that place, they marched to Sardis, which they took, and having driven Artaphernes, the Persian governor, into the citadel, they set fire to the city.

504.

Sardis burnt.

The Ionians now marched for Ephesus, but the Persian and Lydian armies overtook and defeated them with great slaughter. The Athenians now recalled their ships, and refused to engage any further in the war.

Miletus being the centre of the Ionian confederacy, Artaphernes resolved to concentrate his forces, and besiege the place.

The Ionians discovering his design, fortified the city, and prepared for a long siege; at the same time resolving to engage the Persians at sea.

Ionians fortify Mi-  
letus.

The Ionian fleet, consisting of three hundred and fifty-three vessels, was assembled at Lade, a small island near Miletus. The Persian fleet was far superior in numbers, but so skilful were the Greeks considered in maritime affairs, that the Persian commander dared not hazard an engagement, until he had sought to corrupt the different squadrons of which the Ionian fleet was composed. He promised indemnity to those countries whose vessels should forsake the Ionian cause, and threatened utter destruction to the places whose fleets should adhere to it. All, but the Samians, stood firm in their devotion to the common cause.

Naval victory of the  
Persians.

They, in the commencement of the battle, gave the signal for flight, and of their sixty ships, forty-nine deserted. The Samian people disapproved the treachery of their admiral, and ordered the names of the eleven captains who disobeyed his commands, to be recorded on a pillar erected by the commonwealth.

491.

Miletus taken by as-  
sault.

Though the Ionians, and most of the allies fought with bravery, the battle was lost. Miletus was soon after taken by assault. Its inhabitants were put to the sword; and its buildings and temples burnt.

The Persians now spread devastation through the towns and country, to the shores of the Hellespont.

The resentment of Darius was enkindled against the Grecian states, not only for the destruction of Sardis, but for their intention to destroy his bridge of boats.

Artaphernes replaced by Mardonius.

Two years after the Persians had recovered Miletus, Artaphernes, the Persian governor, was recalled, and Mardonius, a young nobleman who had married a daughter of Darius, appointed in his place. Being furnished with a large army, and a powerful fleet, he was directed to carry the war into Greece. His land army crossed the Hellespont, and recovered Macedonia and Thrace.

491.

Mardonius conquers Thrace.

His fleet, in doubling Mount Athos, was exposed to a violent storm, in which three hundred ships, and twenty thousand men, were lost. The season was advanced, and the Persians for the time relinquished the enterprise, and returned to Asia.

## CHAPTER V.

### GREECE.—THE PERSIAN WAR.

#### SECTION I.

Greece was at this time composed of a number of small and independent states, connected with each other by no bond of interest or obligation, but often engaged in feuds and hostilities. Sparta and Athens having obtained a pre-eminence over the other states, were ever jealous of each other. The invasion of the Persians, united them in one common effort to repel the invaders; and thus by awakening in them a national spirit, laid the foundation of their future greatness. The year following the invasion of Mardonius, Darius sent heralds into Greece, demanding of all the cities, earth, and water, the usual form in which the Persians exacted submission. Thebes, Ægina, and many of the cities and islands submitted; but Athens and Sparta resented the demand, and in the one place the heralds were thrown into a cave, in the other into a well, and bade to procure there the earth and water which they wanted.

491.

Darius exacts submission of Greece.

Darius, in the mean time, had made vigorous preparations for the war. Datis, with Artaphernes, son of the former governor of Lydia, was appointed to succeed Mardonius. They departed from Asia Minor with a fleet of five or six hundred ships, and an army of

Datis and Artaphernes succeed Mardonius.

five hundred thousand men. Having taken the islands of the Ægean sea, they proceeded to Etruria, a city of Eubœa, which had greatly incensed Darius by its participation in the Ionian revolt. Having reduced the city to ashes, and sent the inhabitants in chains to Persia, the Persians under the guidance of Hippas, the banished king of Athens, advanced towards Attica, and landed on the narrow plain of

**Marathon.** The Spartans, from some superstitious fears, were unwilling to join the little band of Athenians till after the full moon. In Miltiades, the Athenians possessed a commander capable of directing the energies of the republic, and infusing into the breasts of the people something of his own self-devoting spirit. He had formerly been tyrant of the Chersonesus, and having accompanied Darius in his Scythian expedition, was acquainted with the Persian mode of warfare. This intrepid hero did not even await the approach of the Persians, but marched onward to Marathon with his little army of 10,000 heroes, and prepared with alacrity for the onset of the Persian host, which was ten times his own in number. The strength of the Persian army consisted much in its cavalry, and the prudent Miltiades had drawn up his forces on a narrow plain, where cavalry had no opportunity for action. Datis, the Persian commander, was aware of his disadvantageous position, but trusting to the superiority of his forces, concluded to hazard an engagement. On the signal for battle, the Athenians advanced running, at once engaging the enemy in close fight. The whole Persian army retreated in disorder to the ships. The Athenians pursued, set many of the ships on fire, and took seven on the shore. Hippias fell fighting in the Persian ranks. Twelve thousand Persians are said to have either been killed in the battle, or in the pursuit which followed, while the loss of the Greeks was estimated at no more than two hundred. An Athenian soldier, finding the victory secure, left the field of battle, covered with blood, and such was his exhaustion on reaching the city, that he could only exclaim, "Rejoice, rejoice, the victory is ours," when he fell dead at the feet of the magistrate.

Miltiades besieges  
Paros.

Miltiades now obtained of the Athenians a fleet of seventy ships, with the design of punishing those islands which had favoured the Persians. He laid siege to Paros, but having received a dangerous wound in attempting to enter the town, he raised the siege and returned to Athens. On the accusation of one of the citizens, this benefactor of Greece was tried for treachery in raising the siege. He was fined fifty talents, and, being unable to pay this sum, was thrown into prison, where he died of the wounds which he received in the service of his ungrateful country. His son, the excellent Cimon, paid the fine, and obtained the body of his father for burial.

488.

Tried for treachery,  
and dies in prison.

Darius meditates  
another expedition  
against Greece.

Darius now set about preparing a more powerful armament, intending to lead the expedition in person. Three years had been occupied in these preparations, when the attention of the monarch was called to the revolt of Egypt. His death occurring about this period, put an end to his schemes for the subjugation of Greece.

486.

Xerxes, king of  
Persia.

Xerxes, his eldest son, upon whom he settled the succession, first devoted himself to the recovery of Egypt, which he effected in the second year of his

Prepares to invade  
Greece.

reign. He next prepared for the invasion of Greece, and after four years, in which he had gathered an army from all parts of his empire, he commenced

his march towards the Hellespont.

In order to ruin the Greeks more effectually, he had persuaded the Carthaginians, now a powerful people, to make war upon the Grecian colonies in Sicily and Italy. Xerxes passed the winter at Sardis, from whence he sent heralds to all the Grecian states, except Athens and Lacedæmon, demanding earth and water. The Thessalians, and some others, submitted.

Demands submission of the Grecian states.

In the spring, Xerxes at the head of an army, said to have been greater than was ever collected either before or since his time, advanced towards Greece. A bridge of boats had been made, at a vast expense, for the passage of the host across the Hellespont. The width of the strait, which is nearly a mile, and the rapidity of the

481.  
Crosses the Hellespont.

current, rendered the undertaking as useless as it was difficult and dangerous. The bridge was destroyed by a violent storm, and Xerxes, in a fit of passion, ordered the workmen to be put to death, and the rebellious sea to be scourged with three hundred lashes, and chains to be thrown into it. Another bridge was however soon completed, and the army having occupied seven days and seven nights in the passage, were all landed in Europe. Having crossed the Thra-

cian Chersonesus, and arrived at Dor, a city at the mouth of the Hebrus, Xerxes reviewed his army. His infantry amounted to 1,700,000, and his cavalry to 80,000. His fleet, when he left Asia, consisted of 1207 vessels, of three banks of oars, each carrying two hundred fighting men. The European nations had added to his fleet 20 vessels, each carrying 200 men; besides which there were small galleys, transport ships, and vessels carrying provisions, amounting to 3000.

Reviews his army.

Alarm in Greece and measures for resistance.

Great was the terrour which the advance of this formidable army spread among the Grecians. The Athenians and Lacedæmonians stood almost alone in their resistance. Ambassadors were dispatched to Gelon, the tyrant of Syracuse, who, by his superior ability, had made himself the most powerful Grecian potentate of his time, and also to the neighbouring state of Argos, and to the isles of Corcyra and Crete. From each an unfavourable answer was returned.

The Athenians consulted the oracle of Delphi. The most favourable answer which could be obtained, was, that when all else was destroyed, their wooden walls might preserve them. This, Themistocles, who now took the lead in Athens, gladly interpreted to signify their ships. After the battle of Marathon, this profound politician, foreseeing the probable continuance of the war, had sought to increase the maritime power of the Athenians. At his suggestion they had appropriated the revenues of some silver mines which had usually been distributed among the people, to the building of an hundred galleys. On the first alarm of the powerful Persian invasion they had



doubled their number of ships. To this fleet, Athens was now indebted for her preservation.

Themistocles was appointed to the command of the Athenian navy; while Eurybiades, a Spartan, was commander-in-chief of the whole naval force of the allies. In the present danger, Athens and Ægina had become reconciled, and all internal divisions were healed.

## SECTION II.

484.

Themistocles now joined in soliciting the return of Aristides, a man whose banishment he had been active in procuring. Aristides had, in the war with Darius, been of great service to the state, and by the spotless integrity of his character, had acquired the sur-name of the Just. He returned at the call of his country and united with Themistocles in promoting its interests.

The Persian army had marched, at its ease, and without opposition, through Thrace, Macedonia and Thessaly, compelling every city through which it passed, to prepare for it splendid entertainments.

Such an unresisting submission rendered it quite unprepared for the resistance which it encountered at the narrow pass of Thermopylæ.\*

Here Leonidas, the Spartan king, at the head of only five thousand regular troops, was posted. Xerxes, hearing that the Spartans had taken possession of this pass, sent a message to them, signifying that it was the Athenians only with whom he was at war, and desiring them to lay down their arms; "Tell him to come and take them,"

was the reply of the Spartan king. The Persians made repeated attacks, and were repulsed with great slaughter by the irresistible valour and firmness of the Grecian phalanx.† After three days, the Persians were conducted by a base and treacherous Greek, to a secret path which led to the top of a mountain overlooking and commanding the Spartan position. When Leonidas was apprised of this event, he saw that it was impossible, effectually to repulse the enemy; but he determined to sacrifice himself for his country; believing that his self-devotion would show the Persians, with whom they had to contend, and his example enkindle

480.

the enthusiasm of his countrymen. Besides, the oracle had declared that either Sparta or her king must perish. Reserving his three hundred Spartans, who were emulous of sharing his fate, he dismissed the others. Without a hope either of conquest or escape, this little band advanced

\* This was a narrow pass between Mount Ceta and the sea, leading from Thessaly into Phocis. It derived its name from two Greek words, *thermæ*, warm springs, of which there were several near by, and *pylæ*, gates. Through this narrow way, not wide enough for two chariots to pass each other, the Persian land forces were obliged to march, on their way to Attica.

† A square battalion or body of soldiers, with their shields joined and pikes crossing each other; and so closely arranged in rank and file, as to render it exceedingly difficult to break it. It sometimes consisted of 8,000 or 10,000 men, but frequently of a smaller number.

to the onset, determined to sell their lives at a dear price. Leonidas was one of the first who fell. His soldiers, roused to fury, rallied around his body, and fought till 20,000 Persians were slain. Only one of the three hundred remained to carry the news. He was despised, while Sparta rejoiced over her patriot sons who nobly fell at Thermopylæ.

The fleet of Xerxes had followed the movements of the land forces, and lay near them, on the northern coast of Eubœa. Though a storm had destroyed above 400 of his vessels, his naval strength was still superior to the Grecian. Several engagements had

The Persian fleet  
destroyed by a  
storm.

taken place between them, which, though not decisive, were favourable to the Athenians, and served to animate their spirits. News of the battle of Thermopylæ, induced the Grecian fleet to withdraw from the neighbourhood of the Persian, which now took possession of Eubœa. Before the

The Persians in pos-  
session of Eubœa.

Greeks departed, Themistocles passed through all the places where the enemy would probably land to obtain water and provision, and left, engraven upon the rocks and stones, addresses to the Ionians, urging them to abandon the cause of the Persians, and to come over to the party of their fathers, reminding them that the present invasion of Greece was produced by its exertions for the liberty of the Ionians.

Xerxes burns the ci-  
ties of Phocis.

Xerxes, advancing through Phocis, burnt its cities, and laid waste the country.

The inhabitants of the Peloponnesus, forgetful of the claims of their allies, thought only of preserving their own country. With this view, they set about fortifying the Peloponnesus, intending to prevent the progress of the Persian army, by means of a strong wall extending across the isthmus from the gulf of Corinth to the gulf of Athens. Had not a different spirit guided the Athenian councils, this timid and selfish policy, by separating the confederates, would have ended in the entire subjugation of Greece. When the Athenians found themselves deserted and unable to withstand alone the Persian army, instead of submitting to the invaders, which, by depriving the other states of the aid of their fleet, would have insured the destruction of the Peloponnesus, they immediately determined upon abandoning their city. Almost all the male citizens now went on

Athenians retire to  
their fleet.

board the ships, believing these to be the wooden walls intended by the oracle. The protection of the city was solemnly committed to Minerva, and the women and children were sent to Salamis and Ægina. Xerxes now advanced to the destruction of Athens, burnt the citadel, and slaughtered the few remaining Athenians, who had valiantly defended it. The finest paintings and statuary which adorned this beautiful city, he sent to adorn Susa, now the capital of his own dominions.

Xerxes takes Athens.

The chief commander of the Grecian fleet, Eurybiades, a Spartan, with most of the confederates, were anxious to retreat to the isthmus of Corinth, near which the Grecian land forces were stationed.

But Themistocles, who commanded the Athenian navy, urged the necessity of maintaining their advantageous position in the narrow strait of Salamis. His threat of abandoning the armament with the Athenian vessels, if a contrary resolution was adopted, induced the other commanders to remain. To hasten an engagement, Themistocles caused the Persians to be informed that the Greeks were in no condition to encounter them, and were about to sail away.

As the crafty Themistocles had foreseen, the Persians, to prevent the escape of the Greeks, sent their vessels to occupy both ends of the strait. Aristides, who was at Ægina, on learning the movements of the Persians, procured a passage to Salamis. On his arrival, the officers were discussing the expediency of a retreat, but he informed them that the entrances of the strait were already in the hands of the Persians.

Nothing was now left to the Greeks but united resistance. The Persian fleet was far superior in number to theirs. The land army, with Xerxes at its head, was drawn up on the Attic shore. The vain monarch, confident that he should but witness an easy conquest, was struck with astonishment and dismay when he found the valour of the Greeks prevailing, and at length beheld the destruction and flight of his mighty armament. Alarmed for his personal safety, he was seized with an eager desire to escape from a country where victory itself had been to him scarcely more than another name for defeat.

Fearing, from some secret advices, that his bridge across the Hellespont might be destroyed, he hastened his departure ;  
 leaving 300,000 of his best forces under Mardonius, by which he still hoped to complete the subjugation of Greece. Owing to the appearance of disease among the troops which he had retained, he left them all, and with only a few attendants, hurried forward ; finding his bridge across the Hellespont destroyed, he did not stop to chastise the sea, a second time, but crossed it in a small fishing boat.

The Greeks victorious at Salamis.  
 Xerxes flees.

The remains of the Persian fleet were stationed at Samos, to prevent the revolt of some of the provinces of Asia Minor, and Mardonius with his troops retired into Thessaly to winter quarters.

In the mean time, the Carthaginians, who, following the steps of the Phœnicians, from whom they sprang, had made themselves wealthy by commerce, and powerful on the sea ; believing that the Greek colony in Sicily might at this time be made an easy prey, as they could hope for no assistance from the mother country, attacked them by sea ; and also landed an army on the island of Sicily. Gelon, commanding in person, defeated the land forces ; while his brother Hiero, who commanded the naval armament, obtained a victory over them at sea, on the same day, as is generally believed, that the Greeks defeated the Persians at Salamis.

## SECTION III.

Mardonius sends an  
embassy to Athens.

The following spring, Mardonius despatched an embassy to Athens, to persuade the Athenians to separate themselves from the Grecian confederacy.

The Spartans now fearing the effect of that selfish policy which had left the Athenians to struggle alone, despatched messengers to assure them of their determination to send them immediate succours, and offering to support, during the remainder of the war, the Athenian women and children. Finally, they besought the Athenians not to sacrifice Grecian freedom to the security of their own city. To the emissaries of Mardonius, Aristides, who was now at the head of affairs, returned a respectful but decided negative. To the Lacedæmonians, he replied, that the Athenians would depend on their own resources for the support of their families, and the continuance of the war, but requested them to send their promised succours into Bœotia, to prevent the retaking of Athens.

Mardonius ravages  
Attica.

Mardonius, on learning the result of his negotiation, advanced into Attica, laying waste the whole country. The Athenians receiving no succours from their allies, again abandoned their city, and retired to Salamis.

479.

Athens burnt.

After a second rejection of his offers by the Athenians, Mardonius now consigned their city to destruction, burning and demolishing whatever had

been spared the preceding year.

The Athenians, in their distress, sent messengers to the Peloponnese, in order to hasten the expected succours. The deputies found the Spartans celebrating a feast, which they continued, regardless of their remonstrances. The Ephori,\* for ten days, deferred their decision; but at length fearing that the Athenians might go over to the Persians with their fleet, the impatient deputies were informed that 5000 Spartans, with each seven Helots, had commenced their march towards Attica.

Mardonius now retired into Bœotia, near the city of Thebes, whose inhabitants were in the Persian interest, and where the plains would enable him to employ his cavalry with greater advantage. The Grecian forces amounting to 70,000 men, under the command of

479.

Battle of Plataea.

Pausanias, king of Sparta, and Aristides, the Athenian general, pursued him. Here occurred the memorable battle of Plataea, where the Greeks obtained a splendid victory.

The Grecian history, at this time, presents a continual struggle between Athens and Sparta for supremacy, and on the part of the other states for independence. In each state there were also internal dis-

\* The Ephori were established by Theopompus, king of Sparta, 130 years after Lycurgus. They were five in number, and annually chosen by the people. Their authority was very great. They declared war and made peace, treated with foreign princes, distributed rewards and punishments, and in some instances, even expelled and put to death the kings.

sensions between the aristocratical and democratical parties.\* Sparta was considered the head quarters of aristocracy; Athens, of democracy.

A number of petty wars succeeded the great Persian conflict.

448.

Sacred War.

First, the Sacred war, so called because it originated in a dispute arising from a claim of the Delphians to the sole care of the temple of Apollo. The Lacedæmonians supported this claim, which was opposed by Athens and some of the other states. The Athenians, during this war, were defeated by the Bœotians under the great Epaminondas, at Chæronea. Three years after this, in a war with the Samians, the Athenians under Pericles, prevailed, and took the capital of the enemy.

Next, followed the Corinthian war. The Corcyrians, originally, a colony from Corinth, but who now surpassed the mother country, had hitherto declined joining any of the Grecian confederacies. Being at war with Corinth, they implored the alliance of the Athenians. Corinth also sent deputies to dissuade the Athenians from assisting them, on the ground that it would be a violation of the treaty, Corinth being a powerful member of the Peloponnesian confederacy.

Tengallies were, however, furnished to the Corcyrians by the Athenians, but with orders to engage only if the Corinthians invaded the island of Corcyra. The hostile feelings of Athens and Corinth were farther increased by a dispute respecting Potidæa, a Corinthian colony in Macedonia, which was a tributary ally of Athens; and a battle was finally fought between their forces near that city, in which the Athenians gained the advantage, and laid siege to the place.

Battle of Potidæa.

The Corinthians now prevailed upon their allies to join in a deputation to Lacedæmon, accusing the Athenians of having broken the articles of peace.

445.

Rome sends to Athens for laws.

Such was the reputation for wisdom that Athens had at this time acquired in distant countries, that a new nation, rising in the west, sent deputies to obtain the laws of Solon. This nation was Rome,—destined to become the conqueror of Greece. Poets and philosophers now flourished in the Grecian republics. Herodotus, the "Father of History," read his work to a public assembly at Athens, and received public honours.

The Lacedæmonians were already making the most vigorous pre-

\* The government of the United States of America is often compared with the governments of Greece and Rome during the periods when they were considered free. Although a similarity may be observed, there is little in those unsettled and insecure states to be compared with the order and security which the American government has thus far afforded. In them, the foes to the freedom of the state were an aristocratical party who believed themselves entitled to rule, and ambitious individuals who aspired to supreme power. The people, opposing the pretensions of the aristocracy, blindly gave their confidence to their pretended friends. Thus, before they were aware, their liberties had become a prey to their ambition.

parations for the war, upon which they affected to enter as the Liberators of Greece.\*

The public voice was favourable to Sparta. Even the Athenian allies, groaning under the burdens imposed on them, secretly looked to Sparta for deliverance. Archidamus, king of

431.

Sparta, at the head of the Peloponnesians advanced into Attica. The Athenians were destined to behold their country, which was just recovering from the ravages of the Persians, again desolated. The object of Pericles was to prevent a battle, and to retaliate for the injuries of the enemy by a descent upon the Peloponnesian coast, which the superiority of the Athenians at sea, enabled them to command. With this view the inhabitants of the country were directed to remove their cattle to Eubœa, and to retire to the city. Notwithstanding the distress of the multitudes, who had fled thither for refuge, they bent all their efforts towards preparations for war.

The Spartan king continuing to ravage the country, the popular voice called loudly for battle ; but Pericles, though censured as the cause of all their distress, remained firm to his purpose. The Athenian fleet, meanwhile, had ravaged the western coast of Peloponnesus, and had taken Astacus, a town of Acarnania. The success of the hostile parties, in the first campaign, was nearly equal.

#### SECTION IV.

The following year Athens suffered from a scourge more terrible than the ravages of the Peloponnesians.

430.

A plague of a most virulent character broke out in the city, and multitudes of its crowded population became its victims. Pericles was one of the number. Such was the extent of the distress, that the dying were unattended, the dead unburied. The living broke out into the most disgraceful licentiousness of conduct, as if they hasted to fill up the measure of their iniquity, before death should seize upon them.

The Athenians having been successful in several engagements, and having, at Pylos, taken a number of Spartan prisoners, the Lacedæmonians made earnest overtures for peace. They however were rejected. In the young Brasidas, Sparta found a general who partially retrieved her affairs. He transferred the seat of war to the coasts of Macedonia, and took Amphipolis, the most valuable of the Athenian possessions in Thrace.

Thucydides, the historian, had command of the Athenian squadron, now stationed at Thasos, which he brought up, as soon as he

\* The different relations of Athens and Sparta to their allies, may require some explanation. Athens, as mistress of the sea, commanded the cities of the coasts, and most of the islands, which being tributary allies, subjected to unlimited control, and deprived of ships, obeyed with reluctance ; while the allies of Sparta, were free from tribute, and voluntarily attached themselves to the league. The Spartan league included all Peloponnesus, except Argos and Achaia, which remained neutral, Megara, Locris, Phocis, Boeotia, the cities of Ambracia and Anactorium, and the island of Leucas.

found Amphipolis was attacked. Though too late to prevent its surrender, he saved Eion which was next attempted. For his failure, though innocent of any mismanagement, the Athenians banished him for twenty years.

Thucydides banished.

The leading persons in Athens at this period, were Cleon, an ambitious man who succeeded Pericles in the management of public affairs, Nicias, a nobleman of integrity and patriotism, and Alcibiades, the grandson of Pericles.

The latter was born to wealth, possessed uncommon beauty and great power over the minds of others, but he was unprincipled and profligate.

Alcibiades.

416.

The scene of war transferred to Sicily.

Hoping to acquire glory by the conquest of Sicily, Alcibiades had prevailed on the Athenians, contrary to the wiser counsels of Nicias, to send out a fleet against Syracuse, which had favoured the Spartan cause. The most powerful and splendid fleet which had ever sailed from Athens, was fitted out, and Alcibiades and Nicias appointed chief commanders. Previous to the departure of the armament, some outrages having been committed upon the images of Mercury, which the Athenians had placed at the entrances of their temples and dwellings, suspicion rested upon Alcibiades. He protested his innocence, and demanded a trial before his departure, which was not granted. On the arrival of the fleet in Sicily, the popular excitement was so great against him, that he was summoned home. Suspecting his danger, he fled to the Peloponnesus, and sought revenge against his country by joining the Spartan cause.

Alcibiades recalled, flees to Sparta.

Syracuse, alarmed at the invasion of Sicily, had sent to Sparta, imploring aid against the Athenians. Alcibiades, having pleased the Spartans by conforming to their plain dress and severe manners, artfully wrought upon their fears and pride, and persuaded them not only to send supplies into Sicily, but to make a fresh incursion into Attica.

Athenians besiege Syracuse.

The Athenians at length laid siege to Syracuse, but the indecision of Nicias, who was now alone in command, prevented its being prosecuted with vigour. The Spartan succours arrived. Nicias wrote home for reinforcements, which were sent out under Demosthenes. The two generals, however, found themselves unable to sustain the siege, and in attempting a retreat, both Nicias and Demosthenes were taken prisoners.

414.

Defeat of the Athenian fleet.

A battle was fought at sea, in which the Syracusans obtained a decided superiority, and the expedition ended in the entire ruin of the armament. The Athenians were in dismay, and the condition of the republic seemed almost desperate. Their treasury was exhausted, their navy almost destroyed, and their allies ready for revolt. Yet, the spirit of the people sustained them, and the most energetic measures were speedily employed to retrieve their affairs. They might have succeeded, had they not a new source of power to

encounter, in the gold of Persia, which had found its way to the Lacedæmonians.

The Persians furnish the Lacedæmonians with money.

The satraps of Lydia and of the Hellespont, persuaded by Lysander, an accomplished Spartan, whose character resembled that of Alcibiades, furnished them with powerful supplies. Meanwhile, Alcibiades finding himself suspected at Sparta, now visited Sardis, and ingratiating himself with Tissaphernes, the satrap of Lydia, rendered him favourable to Athens. At the same time, he offered his own services to his dejected country, on condition of the establishment of an oligarchy.

## SECTION V.

Since the days of Pericles, the government had passed into the hands of the lowest of the populace. The disorder and confusion arising from this cause, were very manifest. A vote was passed to accept the proposal of Alcibiades. He was recalled, and appointed general. The affairs of Athens, seemingly in utter ruin, under the guidance of Alcibiades, took a more favourable turn. The Athenian fleet was repeatedly victorious, and the taking of Byzantium established the Athenian supremacy in Ionia, and Thrace. The brilliant success of Alcibiades revived the fears with which the Persian satraps regarded the Athenians, and thus cut off the Spartan supplies of gold in that quarter.

About this time, the Athenian fleet near Notium, during the absence of Alcibiades, and contrary to his orders, engaged in battle with Lysander, the Spartan admiral, and was defeated. This drew upon Alcibiades the wrath of the populace, of which his enemies taking advantage, he was dismissed from the command without trial, and again became an exile. He little deserved this treatment, but his former crimes made him distrusted. Having retired to a village in Phrygia, the Spartans instigated the Athenians to destroy him. They sent soldiers, who set fire to his house in the night. As he attempted to escape, the soldiers fearing to approach him, killed him with arrows. One woman alone, had sufficient regard for him to give his body a decent burial.

404.

Alcibiades exiled and slain.

After various turns of fortune, Lysander again obtained a decisive naval victory over the Athenians near Ægos-Potamos on the Hellespont. Having entirely destroyed the Athenian navy and reduced the allies to submission, he proceeded to blockade Athens with his fleet; while at the same time it was besieged by land, with the whole strength of the Peloponnesian forces. Famine at length compelled the Athenians to surrender, and accept such terms as their conquerors saw fit to impose. The walls of Athens were destroyed; its ships, with the exception of twelve, given up; its exiles restored; its government changed to an

405.

Lysander conquers the Athenian fleet.

Athens surrenders.



oligarchy under thirty rulers; and the humbled Athenians obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of Sparta.

405. Thus ended, after a bloody civil war of twenty-seven years, the power of Athens, and the glory of Grecian liberty.

End of the Peloponnesian War.

From the effect of the laws of Lycurgus, the power of education may be inferred. If it would lead men to form and preserve, for so long a period, characters, contrary, in some respects, to reason and nature, much more, we should suppose, might it establish men in the reasonable practices of true religion and virtue.

The American statesman may learn from the example of Athens, the danger of letting down the government into the hands of the lowest of the democracy; men who do nothing towards sustaining public burdens; who have every thing to gain, and nothing to lose; and who, destitute of education, or extended views, may be imposed upon by artful, unprincipled demagogues.

We may, especially, learn the vital importance of union, among confederated states. While Greece was united, and public virtue inspired her heroes, she could conquer the millions of Persia. When her states became jealous of each other, and the bond of union was severed, she fell by the hands of her own sons.

404. The chief power in Athens being now vested in The thirty tyrants. thirty persons, supported by the Lacedæmonian interest, the most cruel and arbitrary measures were resorted to.

Critias, the chief of the thirty tyrants, had formerly been banished from the city. He now sought to gratify his revenge by shedding the blood of his countrymen.

Amidst the scenes of tyranny, murder and profligacy which reigned in Athens, one individual shines forth with the lustre of virtue. Socrates, conforming his practice to the principles of morality which he taught, resisted the torrent of vice, with calmness and intrepidity. Having been ordered with four others, to apprehend Leon, an Athenian of blameless life, but whose wealth tempted the cupidity of the tyrants, he resolutely refused. Leon was apprehended by the others, and executed.

Socrates.

The reign of the tyrants could not long continue. 401. The same year in which it was established, the virtuous Thrasybulus, at the head of his exiled countrymen, entered the city, attacked and defeated the tyrants. Favoured by the Spartan party under king Pausanias, he procured the banishment of the tyrants, and the restoration of Solon's constitution. But the virtuous spirit of Greece had departed. The tyranny of the many, followed that of the few. This fact is strikingly illustrated by the condemnation of Socrates.

The thirty tyrants expelled.

The death of Socrates. The death of this philosopher was procured by the sophists, a sect whose opinions he justly despised. Having taken the poisonous hemlock, he

calmly conversed with his friends till the moment of his dissolution. One of his disciples expressed his regret that he should die innocent. Socrates said with a smile, "Would you have me die guilty?"

## CHAPTER VI.

### SECTION I.

#### EXPEDITION OF CYRUS.

**404.** Darius Nothus, king of Persia, died about the close of the Peloponnesian war, and was succeeded by his eldest son Artaxerxes. Cyrus, another son of Darius, called the younger Cyrus, retained the government of Western Asia, as a satrap of his brother.

Mutual jealousies and quarrels ensued between the brothers. At length, Cyrus determined upon dethroning Artaxerxes, and seizing his kingdom. For this purpose, he raised a considerable army, and engaged in his service 13,000 Grecian mercenaries. With these, he marched towards Persia. On his arrival at Cunaxa, he was met by Artaxerxes at the head of his army, and defeated and slain.

**401.**  
Cyrus slain.

The bravery of this prince is much extolled by historians. Xenophon declares, that next to Cyrus the Great, he was most worthy of being a king; his lawless ambition seems to be overlooked in this estimate of his virtue.

After the death of Cyrus, his Persian followers submitted to their king; and the Grecian generals having been invited to a council, and treacherously slain, nothing but destruction seemed to await the 10,000 Greeks who remained; but they resolutely bent their steps towards their distant home, and through an enemy's country effected, under the historian Xenophon, the most memorable retreat on record.

Retreat of the 10,000  
under Xenophon.

The defeat of Cyrus involved the Spartans in a new war with Persia.

The Persians first attacked the Æolian cities of Asia Minor. In the commencement, the war was carried on with little vigour on the part of the Lacedæmonians. But under their king Agesilaus, brilliant successes retrieved the honour of Sparta, and she again assumed an attitude which awakened the fears of the Persian monarch. He had recourse to the old arts of bribery, and stirred up a war against Sparta, in Greece itself.

Ancient Greece lost her free institutions by her own folly, and had nothing remained but the story of her wars and political revolutions, little, at this day, would be said of her. She derives her chief glory from the encouragement she gave to the arts, which she carried to a perfection

The chief glory of  
Greece derived from  
her works of genius.

that modern times have never been able even to equal. In poetry, she boasts her Homer; in eloquence, her Demosthenes; in architecture, her Phidias; with many others of inferior name. In moral philosophy, Socrates carried human reason, perhaps, to the utmost limit it can reach without revelation, teaching the unity of God, and the immortality of the soul. Indeed, he expressed an opinion that God would hereafter reveal to man, concerning a future state, what above all things he was interested to know, but which his own reason was incompetent to discover.

## SECTION II.

## THEBES.

During the decay of the Athenian power, Thebes, the capital of Bœotia, had been increasing in strength, and now sought a pretext for throwing off the Lacedæmonian yoke. This, the Lacedæmonians, by plundering the holy land of Elis, and depriving it of its command over the neighbouring towns, as well as by their tyranny over the allies generally, afforded.

Agesilaus marched his army towards the Hellespont, which having crossed, he passed through Northern Greece, and entered Bœotia. A battle between the Spartans and Thebans was fought near Coronea, in which the former obtained a complete victory. Their success by land, was however counterbalanced by the defeat of their fleet near Cnidus. This war, after continuing eight years, with no important result, but attended by great distress to all parties, was terminated by a peace. Persia, whose gold had been used to foment the war, dictated the conditions of the peace, and obtained for herself the cession of the Asiatic colonies.

The ambitious designs of Sparta, through whose influence this disgraceful peace was made, were soon manifest, in an attack upon Mantinea, a town of Arcadia, which she compelled to submit. She next engaged in war with Olynthus, a city of Chalcidiae, where a democratical government prevailed. This war lasted four years, and ended in the surrender of Olynthus.

Sparta next interfered with the affairs of Thebes. A Spartan army passing through Thebes, on its way to Olynthus, found the city divided into the usual oligarchical and democratical factions, which were possessed of nearly equal power. Phœbidas, the Spartan commander, immediately joined the oligarchical party, which was always favoured by the Spartans, and unsuspected of hostility by the citizens, garrisoned the citadel with his troops. Ismenias, the leader of the democratical party, and first magistrate of the city, was seized on the charge of treason, and imprisoned in the citadel. Many of the Thebans fled. Four hundred of them took refuge in Athens. The Lacedæmonians, although they fined Phœbidas, and deprived him of the command, yet

evinced their approbation of his measures, by retaining the garrison in the citadel, while they sent for Ismenias to Sparta, where he was tried, condemned, and executed.

The government of Thebes was placed in the hands of the oligarchical party, who were supported by the Lacedæmonian troops. A plan for restoring liberty to their

380.  
Pelopidas restores  
liberty to Thebes.

city, was formed by some of the Theban exiles, headed by one of their number, the intrepid Pelopidas. They left Athens in disguise, entered Thebes in the night, slew their opponents, threw open the prison doors, proclaimed liberty to all the citizens, and supplied with arms all who joined them. The Lacedæmonian garrison, ignorant of their numbers, or the extent of the conspiracy, delayed to attack them until morning, contenting themselves with retaining their position in the citadel. On the following morning, succours for the conspirators arrived from Athens. Pelopidas was appointed governor, and proceeded to besiege the citadel. The Lacedæmonians, after a few days resistance, capitulated, on condition of being allowed to return to their own country.

A war now ensued. Athens, since the expulsion of the tyrants, had regained part of her former influence; her navy, which had been destroyed, was now increased, and the fortifications of the Piræus rebuilt. From Athens, Thebes hoped to derive aid; but when the Lacedæmonians entered Bœotia with a powerful army, the Athenians, struck with terror, shrunk from the war, and renounced their alliance with Thebes.

The Lacedæmonians, being at peace with Athens, and in alliance with the other Grecian states, advanced under Cleombrotus, one of their kings, with a powerful army, into Bœotia. Nothing was left to the Thebans but victory, or entire destruction. In Epaminondas, the Thebans had a general suited to a great emergency. Possessed of powerful talents, of military skill, and of a heart glowing with zeal in the cause of his country, he had obtained the unlimited confidence of the people.

371.  
Battle of Leuctra. A decisive engagement was fought at Leuctra, in which this general, aided by Pelopidas, led on the Thebans to victory. The Lacedæmonians had the mortification, (unfelt for ages), of being vanquished by inferior numbers.

Epaminondas invades the Peloponnesus. Epaminondas, though in the dead of winter, pushed his successes, and invaded the Peloponnesus; penetrating even to Lacedæmon, laying waste the country, and burning every unfortified town. The reluctance of his Peloponnesian allies to continue a winter warfare, induced him to withdraw his troops from Laconia.

Laconians revolt from Sparta. The power of Sparta being now on the decline, the Laconians, long oppressed by her aristocracy, took the advantage of the presence of foreign troops, to revolt; and they were joined by many of the Helots. Athens, now jealous of Thebes, sent an army to the assistance of the distressed Spartans.

Both the Lacedæmonians and the Thebans, had sent to the Persian

king for aid. He, declaring in favour of Thebes, issued decrees, in which he assumed a superiority over Greece, offensive alike to Sparta and to Athens. The aim of Thebes at supremacy in Greece, was now apparent, and produced the disaffection of her allies. Her greatness depending on the talents of her generals, Pelopidas and Epaminondas,

364. could not survive them. Pelopidas being again sent against the Thessalians, won a battle, but fell in the combat. Epaminondas advanced into the Peloponnesus. Though deserted by a part of his allies, he fought, with desperate bravery, the renowned battle of Mantinea, where, at the moment of victory, he was slain. With him the power of Thebes expired.

The Amphyctionic council, which during the supremacy of Athens and Sparta possessed little power, had now risen again into something of its former importance. The Thebans now prosecuted the Lacedæmonians for the seizure of the citadel, and obtained a decision of the council in their favour, Lacedæmon being fined 500 talents.

Another decree of the Amphyctions, less just, proved disastrous in its consequences. A vague and doubtful tradition existed, that the rich Cirrhean plain, which had long been cultivated by the Phocians, and furnished subsistence to many of them, had anciently been consecrated by the Amphyctions to the Delphian Apollo. A decision was now obtained by the Thebans, who were inveterate enemies of the Phocians, compelling them to cease from the use of the sacred land, and pay a heavy fine for its former occupancy.

357. This gave rise to a civil war of ten years continuance, which embroiled all Greece, known by the name of the "Second Sacred, or Phocian war."

The employment of foreign mercenaries in this war, the plunder of the temple of Delphi, and the opportunity afforded for the interference of Philip in Grecian affairs, paved the way for the still further degradation of Greece.

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## CHAPTER VII.

### MACEDONIA.

#### SECTION I.

The supremacy of Sparta was now annihilated. Thebes was incapable of ruling, and Athens, though increasing in strength, was still unable to make good any claim of authority over the other states.

360. Philip, king of Macedon, a man of powerful talents, took advantage of the distracted state of Greece to forward his ambitious views.

Philip, during a part of his youth, had been committed to the care

of Epaminondas. Education had cultivated and polished his naturally powerful mind. The military skill he had acquired, enabled him to introduce among his subjects the most approved discipline of the great Theban general.

Macedonia had been but little known until the Persian invasion, but was supposed to have been originally peopled from Argos, though it was not considered one of the Grecian states. From the first invasion, to the battle of Platæa, it was subject to Persia; afterwards it became independent, and now under Philip it was rising to power. Philip designed it to become the head of the Grecian confederacy.

For this purpose, it was necessary to establish his claims, to be considered a Greek, and to procure the admission of Macedonia into the Grecian union. To these objects his attention was early directed. The Sacred or Phocian war offered him the means of attaining his ends.

The Phocians, by the plunder of the temple of Delphi, had rendered their cause generally unpopular throughout Greece. Philip determined to join the Thebans. The Phocians were conquered. The council of the Amphictyons, called to decide upon their fate, decreed that the Amphictyonic rights of the Phocians should be transferred to the Macedonians.

The result of the sacred war was highly displeasing both to the Spartans and to the Athenians. But Philip, by his intrigues, had provided himself with a party in the various states of Greece.

In Athens there was, however, a powerful party headed by the great orator Demosthenes, and Phocion, a noble Athenian. They, aware of his dangerous policy, and foreseeing in its success the destruction of the remains of Grecian freedom, resolutely opposed it.

The Locrians had now been cultivating the sacred lands of Apollo. Some of the Grecians in the Macedonian interest, determined to revenge the sacrilege. The Amphictyonic council met, and under the influence of the partisans of Philip, appointed him their general, in the new war.

But Athens opposed this choice. The eloquence of Demosthenes, supported by an Athenian party in Thebes, effected an alliance between these two states. In a battle which took place at Chæronea, Philip was completely victorious, and the independence of Greece received its death blow. The Macedonian interest was now established in Thebes, and a Macedonian garrison placed in the citadel. But the measures of Philip towards his conquered foes, were mild and forbearing. Instead of proceeding towards Athens as a conqueror, to take vengeance on his enemies, he released the Athenian prisoners without ransom, and offered peace.

Not a year elapsed after the battle of Chæronea, before we find him preparing for the bold attempt of the conquest of Persia. A general assembly of the Amphictyons was summoned at Corinth, in which he was appointed

Philip opposed by  
Demosthenes and  
Phocion.

Philip chosen general by the Amphictyonic council.

Battle of Chæronea.

Philip meditates the invasion of Persia.

336.

Philip dies.

Captain-General of Greece, and the invasion of Persia determined upon as a national affair. The death of Philip, which occurred this year, delayed for a while the execution of the design.

On the death of Philip, the barbarians of the north, who had reluctantly submitted to his power, revolted; the Greeks, to whom the yoke of bondage was yet new, manifested a spirit of rebellion, and his whole kingdom became the scene of tumult and commotion.

## SECTION II.

336.

Alexander.

Alexander, son and heir of Philip, a youth of twenty, had from his earliest years manifested great talents, and a haughty, but generous spirit. Philip, proud of his genius, had invited from Athens the philosopher Aristotle, to superintend his education. By him he was instructed in all the learning of the times.

On his accession to the throne of Macedon, he first turned his arms against the barbarians. Having subdued them, he

336.

Destroys Thebes.

hastened to chastise the revolted Thebans. He stormed their city; caused, with a cruelty which he afterwards bitterly repented, their old men, their women and children to be massacred in the streets, and their buildings to be levelled with the ground, sparing only the house of the poet Pindar.

Athens now trembled. Alexander had said, "Demosthenes called me a boy, but I will show him, before the gates of Athens, that I am a man." Soothed, however, by the submission of the Athenians, and bent on greater projects, he spared the city.

A council of the Amphictyons was now called at Corinth, and with

Appointed commander of the Grecian forces.

the exception of the Lacedæmonians, the deputies, awed by the arms of Alexander, appointed him commander of the Grecian forces destined for the conquest of Persia.

The Persian power had been declining for several preceding reigns. The effeminacy of its monarchs, and the extent of its territory, which necessarily left much to the control of the different satraps, had produced internal dissensions and divisions, and so weakened the empire of Darius, the reigning monarch, that notwithstanding its great resources, it was now little fitted for a contest with a warlike nation, headed by so daring a commander.

334.

Alexander invades Persia.

Only two years had passed since the death of his father, when Alexander undertook his Persian expedition. With an army of between twenty and thirty thousand men, he crossed the Hellespont.

Memnon, the most efficient general of Darius, learning the direction of his march, assembled an army of 600,000,

Battle at the Granicus.

and gave him battle, at a ford of the rapid Granicus. Alexander and his troops fought like mad-

men. Alexander himself, hard pressed, was saved, by his friend Cli-

tus, from the stroke of a Persian battle-axe. At length the Greeks forced the passage of the river, and defeated the Persians with great slaughter. Sardis submitted to the arms of the conqueror. The Grecian cities willingly allied themselves with him. By conciliation or force, he soon made himself master of all Asia Minor, except Cilicia.

The following spring, having overrun Cilicia, he came to an engagement with the main army of the Persians, under the command of Darius himself.

333.

Battle of Issus.

The battle took place near Issus, and again resulted in favour of the Macedonian arms. The slaughter of the Persians was immense. Darius and a part of his cavalry escaped; but his wife and family fell into the hands of Alexander, who treated them with hospitality and respect. Instead of pursuing Darius, the conqueror now took possession of Damascus, the capital of Syria. He then marched into Phœnicia. Some of the cities submitted to him without resistance; but Tyre, the wealthiest and most powerful, maintained a siege of seven months, after which it was taken by assault. The submission of Egypt, to which he immediately proceeded, now followed. During the stay of Alexander in that ancient country, he founded the city of Alexandria, on one of the branches of the Nile.

Alexander takes Damascus.

Conquers Egypt.

332.

Founds Alexandria.

The ensuing

331.

The battle of Arbela.

spring he again commenced his march towards Persia, and having crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, he met at Arbela 700,000 Persians, commanded by Darius, and fought there a more desperate battle than even that of Issus. Notwithstanding the situation was more favourable to the Persian cavalry, the military skill of the Macedonian phalanx gave them the victory. Darius again fled. His army was destroyed, and his throne overturned. Alexander obtained possession of the southern provinces of his empire, almost without resistance. So rapid were his movements, that Darius, who fled before him, was compelled to retreat into Bactria, while all Medina yielded to the conqueror.

330.

Darius assassinated.

The friendless monarch was here inhumanly murdered, by a dependant named Bessus, the governor of the province. For this act of ingratitude and treachery, he expected to be rewarded; but Alexander punished his crime by a cruel death.

Alexander now wishing to assimilate the manners of his extensive empire, adopted the Persian dress, married Statira, the daughter of Darius, and caused many of his officers to marry Persian women. He spent three years in reducing the remaining provinces of the empire to entire subjection. Once, however, during this period, he carried his arms against the Scythians.

Having destroyed the Persian monarchy, new schemes of conquest opened themselves to his mind. But his troops, long absent from their country, and insensible to the glory of extending conquests,



from which they could hope to derive no advantage, now murmured.

The army of Alexander disaffected. They turned their eyes wistfully towards Greece. They liked not Alexander's adoption of the Persian dress, and his evident preference for oriental customs. He had now become elated with his conquests, intemperate in wine, and in the indulgence of his passions. In the fury of his anger, he had caused his devoted friend Parmenio, and his son, to be executed; and with his own hand, in a drunken revel, had killed Clitus, who had saved his life at the battle of the Granicus. His troops, disgusted with these things, revolted,—but when their favourite commander showed his stern displeasure, the veterans came unarmed, and stood for two days imploring his clemency. He wept, forgave them, made them presents, and led them again to make, as he vainly believed, the conquest of the world.

He carried his arms beyond the Indus, with uniform success; but again his army remonstrated, and he was compelled to relinquish his design of farther conquests, and retrace his steps.

Nearchus goes on a voyage of discovery down the Indus.

Alexander marches across the desert.

When he regained the Indus, he divided his army, sending part, under Nearchus, on a voyage of discovery down the Indus, and thence to the mouth of the Euphrates; while he conducted the perilous march of the remainder, through the desert which stretches along the coast. The sufferings of his army were severe, but their courage was sustained by the reflection that their march was homewards, and their spirits cheered by the noble conduct of their commander. On one occasion, a little water, in a time of great drought, was found, from which a soldier filled a helmet, and brought it to the thirsting prince. Alexander, looking upon his famished troops, poured the water on the ground, not choosing to enjoy a refreshment in which his companions could not share.

Arrived at Babylon, he devoted himself, during the remainder of his life, to the improvement of that city; having selected it from its commanding situation, and central position, for the seat of his empire.

It was Alexander, who first projected the plan of opening communications between Europe and India, through the Nile, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean.

But he, whose will never bowed to man, could not resist the messenger of God, sent to call him to his final account. After having

323.

Alexander dies at Babylon.

been the means of death to so many of his fellow beings, he sickened with a fever, occasioned by his excesses, and died in the thirty-third year of his age, leaving many of his projects unfinished, and his extensive empire in an unsettled condition.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## ROME.

## SECTION I.

While the nations of Asia, and of Greece, presenting scenes of internal dissention and decay, seemed tottering on the verge of ruin, a power had arisen in the east, destined ere long to become the mistress of the world.

The ancient Romans deduced their origin from  
 Origin of Rome. *Æneas*, who with his father *Anchises*, his son *Ascanius*, and a small band of followers, fled from the destruction of Ancient Troy, and sought refuge on the shores of *Latium*. Their early history is, however, inseparably mixed with the religious traditions of the age, the artful superstitions of the priests, and the high wrought fictions of the poets.

752. *Romulus*, the first king, founded the city of Rome  
 Romulus. 752 B. C. The day of its foundation remained a yearly festival, as long as the ancient religion of Rome endured.

To provide inhabitants for his city, *Romulus* invited strangers to settle there, granting them equal privileges with his other subjects.

Those of the citizens of Rome who could show a  
 Patricians and Plebeians. noble, or free ancestry, were termed patricians, and were admitted to a share in the government.

Of these, one hundred were selected, who formed a senate. The remainder of the people, called plebeians, were subject to the king and patricians; each individual with his household, being attached to the

head of some patrician family, from whom he received protection, and whom he was bound to serve.  
 Patron and Client. To the protector and dependent were applied the terms patron and client.

*Romulus* is said to have been constantly engaged in war with his neighbours.

Four months after the founding of Rome, *Romulus*, wishing to provide wives for his followers, invited the Sabines, with their women, to the celebration of a religious festival. His soldiers, at a given signal, seized all the young women, and carried them off. They married them, and treated them with so much kindness, that they at length became attached to their husbands; and when, some time after, the Sabines made war upon the Romans to recover them, they rushed between the combatants, and plead with their fathers and husbands to live in peace and union. Their desires were granted, and the Sabines and Romans became one people.

The senate was now doubled by the addition of  
 Division of the citizens made by *Romulus*. an hundred Sabines. *Romulus* divided the citizens into three tribes, each tribe consisting of 300 men;

and again into ten *Curiae*, consisting of thirty men; and over each *Curia*, was appointed for religious purposes, a priest called *Curio*. The senate was the council of state. There was a national assembly, composed of the people assembled by *Curiae*, in which questions were decided according to the votes of the greater number of *Curiae*.

The first monarchs of Rome do not seem to have derived their crown from hereditary right, nor with the exception of the two first,

715. to have possessed unlimited power. On the death  
*Numa Pompilius.* of Romulus, Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, was elected to the throne. His reign was peaceful, and just.

He was revered as a favourite of the gods, and caused it to be believed that he was honoured with celestial communications, by a divine nymph, called *Egeria*, who met him in solitary places, and gave him instructions in regard to many laws, which he promulgated. He instituted different orders of priests, and one of priestesses, called the *vestal virgins*. Their office was to guard the sacred fire. He built the temple of *Janus*, which was always to be open in time of war, but closed in time of peace. His laws were calculated to refine and soften the ferocious manners of the followers of Romulus.

672. The next king, Tullus Hostilius, was of a bold  
*Tullus Hostilius.* and daring character. In his reign, the town of *Alba* was destroyed, and its inhabitants became free citizens of Rome. In the war with the *Albans*, occurred the celebrated combat between the *Horatii* and the *Curatii*, three twin brothers, belonging, the former to the Roman army, the latter to the Alban. It was left, by mutual consent, to their valour to decide the fortune of the war. The combat terminated in favour of the Romans.

640. Ancus Martius, the next king, established the su-  
*Ancus Martius.* periority of the Romans over the *Latins*. Taking several of their towns, he extended the territory of Rome to the sea. He established the colony of *Ostia* at the mouth of the *Tiber*, and made it the port of Rome. Several thousand *Latins* were, during his reign, carried to Rome, where they became citizens.

616. Tarquinius Priscus, now chosen king, was of Gre-  
*Tarquinius Priscus.* cian descent. He continued the wars of Ancus Martius with the *Latins*, conquered the *Æqui*, and a part of the *Sabines*, who had never before submitted to Rome. He added an hundred new senators to the senate, and forming three new tribes from among the *plebeians*, added them to the *patricians*. He was assassinated, and *Servius Tullius* became the next king.

578. He effected an alliance with the *Latins*, placing Rome at the  
*Servius Tullius.* head of the confederacy. The internal changes he effected, were, however, of still greater importance to the nation. The institutions of *Servius* laid the foundation of the future republic. He divided the whole nation into thirty tribes, four of which were contained in the city, each tribe having a magistrate who was its head and representative. Having also caused an estimate of the property of each citizen to be made, after separating the *Equites*, who comprehended the *patricians* and wealthiest of the people, he divided the rest

into five classes, which were again divided into centuries, or hundreds. The efforts of Servius to raise the privileges of the plebeians were resisted, though ineffectually, by the patricians, and brought upon him their enmity. He was forcibly dispossessed of the throne, and murdered by Tarquinius Superbus, (Tarquin the Proud,) the grandson of Tarquinius Priscus, at the instigation, it is said, of his unnatural daughter, Tullia.

534.

Tarquinius Superbus.

This king was successful in war, but his haughtiness and tyranny made him odious to the Romans.

At length his son, Sextus, insulted Lucretia, a noble Roman lady. She assembled her husband Collatinus, her father, and a relation, named, from his supposed stupidity, Brutus. Calling

509.

Death of Lucretia, and termination of the regal government.

on them to avenge her wrongs, she stabbed herself in their presence. They killed Sextus, and expelled his father from the throne. Thus terminated the reign of the Roman kings.

## SECTION II.

The supreme authority vested in Consuls.

The only change at first effected by the expulsion of the kings, was the transfer of the supreme authority to two annually elected magistrates, called consuls.

Conspiracy of the Tarquins.

The Tarquins attempted to recover the throne, and enlisted several patricians in their cause; but the conspiracy was detected in time to prevent it.

Among the conspirators were the sons of Junius Brutus, the defender of Lucretia, who with her husband Collatinus, were first chosen consuls. These young men were, with the rest, condemned by their father, as consul, to die. He witnessed their public execution. His countenance, it is said, displayed by turns the stern justice of the judge, and the tender anguish of the father.

498.

The first Dictator appointed.

During the wars which were carried on with the neighbouring tribes, who supported the pretensions of the Tarquins, the appointment of a dictator was first made. He was chosen by the senate, and approved by the patricians. He was to continue in office but six months, but during that time his authority was unlimited, and from his decree there was no appeal. On the first establishment of a dictator, the populace, seeing the axes which were carried before him, as symbols of his power, and feeling that they could not now, as under the consuls, who were equal in authority, hope for protection from the right of appeal, were struck with terror, and submitted to his rule.

Discontent of the Plebeians.

After the battle at the lake Regillus, the plebeians, who until that time had been treated with the utmost deference, began to feel themselves exposed to insults from the nobility. The patricians, having seized upon the helm of government, and maintaining possession of the public lands, no longer paid, as formerly, a tenth of their revenue to the State.

The plebeians, having been forced by their poverty to become their debtors, were made bond-slaves, and in the dungeons of the patrician houses, suffered the severest distress. At a time when the state was threatened with a war by the Volsci, the indignation of the populace was roused by the appearance of a man advanced in years, of a pale and haggard countenance, a squalid garb, and a withered, emaciated figure, suddenly throwing himself into the forum.\* He was recognized as a centurion of the army, who had shed his blood for his country. He showed to the people, who crowded around him, the cruel marks of recent stripes which his patrician creditor, not content with his miserable incarceration, had inflicted.

The excitement of the multitude on beholding this spectacle, was extreme; and from the forum, it soon spread into all parts of the city. The situation of the senate was alarming,—the multitude refused to enlist in the Volscian war,—and the city seemed threatened with destruction on every side. The consul, Servilius, dismissing the Senate, attempted to conciliate the people. He promised that their grievances should be redressed, and only sought for a delay while it was necessary to attend to the war, as the Volscians were threatening to attack the city. To evince the sincerity of his declarations, he now ordered that no person should hold any Roman citizen in bonds or confinement, so as to prevent his giving in his name to the consuls; that no person should take the goods of a soldier upon service; nor detain in custody his children, or grandchildren. These measures quelled the tumult, and procured the enlistment of soldiers.

Wars with the Sa-  
bines and Aurun-  
cians.

Wars with the Sabines and Auruncians, immediately succeeded the war with the Volsci, in all which the Romans triumphed.

### SECTION III.

Peace being again established, the plebeians looked for the fulfilment of the promises made them by the consuls. But they looked in vain. Open expressions of discontent, and secret cabals, proved their discontent to be deep and dangerous.

Intestine commotions were the signal for hostilities from the neighbouring tribes. The Volscians, Æquians, and Sabines, again took up arms. The Senate and consuls were in dismay. At length it was determined again to appoint a dictator. Lartius Valerius, in whose family the plebeians had the utmost confidence, was appointed.

Again the plebeians deferred urging their just claims, and enlisted in the army. A force greater than had ever before been raised, was now enrolled.

Victorious in the foreign war, the Roman soldiers returned but to

\* The Forum was an open space, marked out by Romulus, and surrounded with porticoes by Tarquinius Priscus. It was a place in which the people assembled to transact public business. Spacious halls for courts of justice, and other public business, were afterwards built around it, called Basilicæ.

find their hopes of redress again disappointed. Valerius, seeing it impossible to bring the patricians to yield, resigned the office of dictator, and retired to a private station. The senate feared to disband the soldiers; and believing they would feel themselves bound by their oaths to the consuls, determined upon retaining them in arms. By this measure, however, they only hastened the crisis which they dreaded.

The army, without waiting for the commands of  
Sedition in Rome. the consuls, retired to Mons Sacer, (the sacred mount,) about three miles from the city. There, without any commander, they fortified their camp. The senate and patricians were thus compelled to negotiate. Deputies being sent to the camp, a

reconciliation was at length effected, and the plebeians were allowed ashare in the government. Three  
498. officers from their number, called tribunes, were appointed as magistrates, and invested with inviolable privileges, having power to protect the people even against the consuls. All debts were cancelled, and the debtors released, but the law remained unaltered. The tribunes were to be elected annually, and no patrician permitted to hold the office. The contest between the patricians and plebeians for the present seemed terminated.

It was soon however renewed in the following manner. A famine broke out in the city, in consequence of the lands being untilld during the insurrection of the plebeians. The sufferings of the people were intense. A quantity of corn was at length brought from Sicily. The senate debated at what price it should be given to the people.

Marcus Coriolanus, a patrician who had signalized himself by his bravery in some of the wars with the neighbouring nations, but whose animosity towards the plebeians was implacable, proposed the restoration of the former rights of the patricians, as the price of their supply. The people heard the proposal with indignation, and the tribunes could with difficulty prevent the open expression of their rage. Coriolanus was summoned by the tribunes to a trial. Supported by the whole body of the plebeians, they were able to enforce their summons. It was a new, and to the patricians an alarming occurrence, to find one of their body arraigned at a plebeian tribunal. Their efforts, their entreaties and supplications, could not, however, move the people. Coriolanus, not appearing on the day of trial, was condemned to exile. He retired to the Volscians, and incited them to a war with his native city. The senate, unable to depend on the plebeians for assistance, knew not what to do. Two deputations were sent to the enemy, but without success. The priests in their sacred garments, went as suppliants to his camp, but in vain. The matrons assembling about Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, and joined by Volumnia his wife, leading his two little sons, proceeded in sadness to the Volscian camp.

The stern warrior melted at the tears of his mother. Weeping, he said, "You have saved Rome, but destroyed your son." In a

short time he drew off his troops from the Roman territories.\* The Romans in honour of this event, erected a temple to Female Fortune.

The patricians and plebeians were still jealous of each other. Dissensions arose concerning the disposition of some lands, gained by a league with the Herulians. Further changes in the government

Romans send to Greece for laws. were demanded, and ambassadors were despatched to Athens for copies of the Grecian laws.

#### SECTION IV.

**451.** On their return, ten magistrates were created, Decemvirs created. called the Decemvirs, who were to compile a body of laws. From their authority no appeal could be made. They were appointed but for one year, and during that time there were to be neither consuls nor tribunes. It was at first disputed whether plebeians should be allowed to hold this high office. At length it was decided that they should not.

During the first year the decemvirs executed justice impartially. Assiduously applying themselves to the framing of just laws, they produced the ten tables, which after being examined in an assembly of the people, were approved and ratified. It was then said that two more tables were wanted. For the purpose of adding these, the office was continued another year; and new decemvirs elected, at the head of whom was Appius Claudius. These decemvirs held secret meetings among themselves, governed with haughtiness, and at the expiration of the year, showing no intention to lay down their office, their tyranny seemed likely to become perpetual. An act of violence, however, of Appius Claudius, which resulted in the death of the young and lovely Virginia, irritated the people to madness. Another revolution took place, by which the decemvirate was abolished, and the consuls and tribunes were restored.

**449.** Death of Virginia. in the death of the young and lovely Virginia, irritated the people to madness. Another revolution took place, by which the decemvirate was abolished, and the consuls and tribunes were restored.

During this period, the cause of the plebeians was gradually advancing. A law, allowing the intermarriage of patricians and plebeians, had, after much opposition, been passed. Another law, by which plebeians should be admitted to the consulship, was proposed. The plebeians, though unsuccessful in this, obtained, as a sort of compromise, the election of military tribunes with consular power, to be chosen from patricians or plebeians, without distinction.

**444.** The censorship, an office confined to the patricians, was also about this time established.†

In these domestic broils between the patricians and the plebeians, the common resort of the aristocracy, was to weak-

\* The retreat of Coriolanus incensed the Volcians. According to some accounts, they put him to death.

† The name Censor was at first given to those who made the census, or numbered the people. Their powers were now extended to a variety of other objects, among which was the punishment of irregularities of moral conduct, and direction of the education of youth.

en the people by employing them abroad in foreign wars. It was upon the occasion of the wars with the Equi and Volsci, that the venerable Cincinnatus, ploughing in his field, received the messengers from Rome, who announced to him that he was appointed dictator of the commonwealth. He left his fields and oxen with regret, and after leading the Romans to victory, returned, in sixteen days, to his rural occupations.

**401.** The Romans besieged Veii, an opulent city of Etruria, at a distance from Rome. The war being protracted from various causes for ten years, the soldiers were for the first time obliged to stay from Rome during the winter. In this war, wages were for the first time allowed to the Roman soldiers.

In the mean time, the Gauls, now first heard of in history, invited by the fertility of the southern countries, passed the Alps, and like a sweeping inundation, poured through the northern provinces of Italy. The Clusians, whose city they now besieged, applied to the Romans for aid. The Romans despatched an embassy to the Gallic camp, with offers of mediation. The offers were rejected, and the Roman ambassadors entered Clusium, and engaged zealously in its defence. One of them being recognized in the act of killing a Gallic chief, Brennus, the leader of the Gauls, sent envoys to Rome, to complain of the breach of the law of nations, and demanded that the offender should be given up, but the Romans haughtily disregarded the demand.

**Brennus marches to Rome.** Brennus, highly irritated, marched instantly towards Rome. An army was hastily collected to oppose him. The Romans never struck a blow, but fled in dismay from the strange appearance of their unknown enemies. The Gauls continued their march, fifteen miles, to the city. The citizens, generally, had abandoned it; only some of the aged, and a few of consular rank, remained. Their venerable appearance, for a time, stayed the fury of the barbarians. But at length, they put them to the sword. The Gauls then besieged the citadel, which was saved, when they were about to make a night assault upon it, by the cackling of some geese, awakening the sleeping sentinels. At length, the Gauls agreed to quit the city, on condition of receiving a large amount of gold, which was to be weighed. Brennus threw his sword into the scale, with the weights, already complained of as too heavy.

**Camillus.** At this moment, Camillus, a noble Roman who had been banished, entered the city at the head of an army, which he had collected. He told the Romans to put up their gold, and redeem their city with iron. Thus aroused, they chastised the Gauls, and expelled them from Rome. They had, however, burnt it to the ground. It was soon rebuilt, but without order, or regularity.

**390.**  
Rome burnt.



## PERIOD VI.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Death of { FIFTH EPOCH, 323 B. C. } Alexander the Great

TO THE



The Birth of Christ.

Christian { SIXTH EPOCH, } Era.

### CHAPTER I.

#### SECTION I.

Empire of Alexander after his death. After the death of Alexander, his vast empire presented a scene of unceasing tumult, confusion, and bloodshed. His generals, bold, ambitious, and unprincipled, were each eager to seize a share of the mighty wreck.

After the death of their monarch, the rights of his infant son, Alexander, and of his brother, Aridæus, afterwards called Philip, were acknowledged, and they were styled kings. Their power, however, existed only in name. Perdicas, the general to whom the dying monarch gave his ring, was appointed Commander-in-chief. Various divisions of the empire were assigned to the different generals. Conflicting interests, and mutual animosities produced constant wars, and assassinations. The first sixteen

years from the death of Alexander, present a tissue of intrigue and crime, unequalled in the history of the world. His wife, his mother,

The royal family  
and Perdiccas mur-  
dered.

his son, and all the other members of the royal family, were murdered. Perdiccas shared the same fate.

### 301.

Battle of Ipsus and  
Division of the Em-  
pire.

A league was at length formed between Ptolemy, Seleucus, Lysimachus, and Cassander. A battle was fought at Ipsus, in Phrygia, in which they obtained a victory over Antigonus, and his son Demetrius Poliorcetes, who had for some time held the

chief authority. The empire was then divided into four parts, and one part assigned to each of the four generals who formed the league. Ptolemy assumed the regal power in Egypt; Seleucus, in Syria, and Upper Asia; Lysimachus, in Thrace; and Cassander in Macedonia.

Ptolemy.

Under Ptolemy, Alexandria rapidly rose, until it became the seat of commerce and the sciences.

The protection of the national religion procured for the monarch the entire submission of the people; while his tolerant policy drew multitudes of Jews to Alexandria, and thus contributed to the rapid growth of the city. Of all the successors of Alexander, Ptolemy alone was fitted to build up an empire, and though sometimes drawn into the wars of the other princes, he generally preserved Egypt in peace, and transmitted the kingdom entire, to his descendants.

Seleucus.

Seleucus Nicator, the founder of the dynasty of the Seleucidæ, preserved Syria and Upper Asia

from war during the eighteen years which succeeded the battle of Ipsus. In this time, he built, or greatly improved several cities, of which Antioch, in Syria, which he made the capital of his kingdom, was the principal. He restored the commerce with the eastern countries. The regal power under his successors, however, rapidly declined.

Cassander.

Cassander, by the battle of Ipsus, became king of Macedonia, and of a part of Greece. He reigned

but three years, leaving Macedonia as an inheritance to his sons.

Philip, the eldest son, died soon after his father. The others, Antipater and Alexander, by their mutual animosities, hastened their own ruin. After the death of Antipater, Alexander his brother, found it necessary, from the distracted state of his affairs, to call in foreign assistance. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and Demetrius Poliorcetes were both summoned to his aid. The latter procured the death of Alexander, and usurped his throne. Constant war now seemed the portion of the Macedonian empire. Demetrius, after disputing his title to the throne seven years, was expelled by Pyrrhus. He, again, was supplanted by Lysimachus of Thrace.

Union of Macedonia,  
Thrace, Asia Minor,  
and Syria.

Macedonia, Thrace, and a part of Asia Minor, were now united. Lysimachus, however, retained his power but for a short period. Family quarrels

soon brought on a war with Seleucus. In a battle fought at Curupedion, Lysimachus was defeated and slain. The whole of Asia Minor and Syria were now united to Macedonia and Thrace. Seleucus

proclaimed himself king. On his passage into Europe, however, he was assassinated, and Macedonia and Thrace were again considered a prize for contest.

Ptolemy Ceraunus, the first usurper of the throne, and murderer of Seleucus, was soon deposed by the Gauls. In three successive invasions, these northern barbarians overran Thrace and Macedonia, penetrated to the temple of Delphi, and threatened to lay waste all Greece. They were at length expelled from Greece, but made a settlement in Thrace, which was thus lost to Macedonia.

Two claimants to the throne of Macedonia now appeared, Antigonus, son of Demetrius, and Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who had now returned from his Italian wars. At the death of Pyrrhus, who fell in an attempt on Argos, Antigonus obtained possession of the throne. During a reign of forty years, he employed his power in recovering the country from its ruinous state.

In Greece the love of liberty seemed almost extinguished. During all these disorders, hardly an effort was made for the recovery of its independence. Athens, indeed, aroused by the eloquence of Demosthenes, had, on the death of Alexander, attempted to shake off the Macedonian yoke. But the city of arts and eloquence was forced to submit to bondage.

That there was not at this time virtue enough in Athens to make her worthy of freedom, was evident from the meanness and injustice of the condemnation and death of the venerable Phocion, whose virtues Alexander had respected, and attempted to reward by lavish presents; none of which, that independent Athenian would accept. He never sought preferment, but he was forty-five times chosen general. He was eloquent, but his speeches were short and sententious. He was so much in the habit of exposing vice with severity, that generally, some persons felt themselves reprov'd. Once, when all applauded, he turned in surprise to a friend, and asked, "Have I inadvertently let some bad thing slip from me?" Yet he was ever the protector of the unfortunate. After he had taken the poison by which he was condemned to die, he charged his son to forgive the Athenians.

323.

The death of Demosthenes, the orator, occurring a little before that of Phocion, was scarcely less deplorable. Having, after his return from banishment, incited the Athenians to rise against the Macedonian power, he was appointed one of the generals of the army. His conduct was noble, but he was unfortunate, and to escape a disgraceful death, he committed suicide.

Achaean League. Achaia made the last struggle for Grecian freedom. A union of twelve Achæan cities, possessed of democratical governments, and leagued on terms of perfect equality, had existed from the early ages of Greece, until the death of Al-

exander the Great, but the confusion and troubles of the subsequent period had caused its dissolution.

251.

Aratus renews the  
Achæan League.

A leader now arose in Aratus, a native of Sicyon, of talents sufficient to unite the scattered portions of the Achæan league, of which he was made general, and to which he soon added Corinth and Megara. He also strengthened it by the accession of several other Grecian states, until it became an object of jealousy to the Lacedæmonians and Ætolians.

Lacedæmon.

Lacedæmon had departed widely from the institutions of Lycurgus. Intercourse with the eastern nations, while it had introduced wealth, had brought with it foreign luxuries and manners, until little but the forms of the ancient constitution could be found. Agis, one of the best and most amiable of the kings, had attempted a reformation, but Leonidas, his colleague, caused him to be betrayed and assassinated, and obliged his widow, Ariatis, being heiress to a large fortune, and renowned for her wisdom and beauty, to marry Cleomenes, his son. The union proved a happy one. Ariatis had, as was natural, a great aversion to Leonidas, but Cleomenes, who loved and esteemed her, she ever treated with respect. She revered the memory of Agis, and, by her discourse, led Cleomenes to admire his character and plans. This might have been one cause which moved this king to make a similar attempt to revive the ancient constitution. The power of the king was now swallowed up by that of the Ephori. He determined, if possible, to restore it. This brought him into collision with the Achæans, who had now received into their league all the states of the peninsula, except Lacedæmon, Elis and Arcadia. The Achæans were compelled to apply to Antigonus, who had succeeded Demetrius on the throne of Macedon. Gladly availing himself of an opportunity of mingling in the affairs of the peninsula, he crossed the isthmus, with an army, in aid of the Achæans, and in a battle fought at Sela-

Battle of Selasia.

sia, Cleomenes was defeated. He fled to Egypt, where he was retained a prisoner by Ptolemy.

Sparta received its independence as a gift from Antigonus; and in the contest between its succeeding kings and the Ephori, it fell into anarchy, and became the prey of tyrants. The depredations of the

220.

War between the  
Ætolians and Achæ-  
ans.

Ætolians on the Messenians, soon involved the Achæans in a war with the former power. In this war, called the "Social war," the Achæans implored the aid of Philip III. who was at this time on the throne of Macedon, and whose kingdom had, in a long interval of peace, again become powerful. The Ætolians were joined by the

211.

Ætolians form a  
league with the Ro-  
mans.

Spartans and Eleans; and persuaded by the Romans to form a league of alliance with them. This prepared the way for the entire subjugation of Greece, although it was for some time delayed, on account of the occupation which Hannibal's invasion gave to the Roman army in Italy.

After the death of Aratus, another general arose among the

206. Achæans, who, in the Ætolian wars, more than supplied his place. Philopœmen was deserving of a better age. But the valour and patriotism of a single man, could not now avert the destiny of Greece.

Philopœmen.

## SECTION II.

## ROME.

Rome, which at the close of the last Period, had but commenced its conquests over the Samnites, now grasped in its ambitious views not only Italy and Africa, but the more remote dominions which had owned the sway of the Macedonian conqueror. During the war for the conquest of the Latin states, the Samnites had joined the Romans, but becoming jealous of their increasing strength, they first withdrew from the alliance, and afterwards formed a league with several kindred tribes, against them.

War with the Sam- In the wars which ensued, the success was vari-  
nites. ous, but the result destructive to the Samnites. At one time a Roman army, under the command of the consuls, Titus Veturius and Spurius Postumius, was decoyed into a defile at the forks of the Caudine river, and there surrounded by the Samnites, so that either escape or battle was impossible. Finding every effort to force a passage vain, they were compelled to sue for peace, which they could obtain only on a most degrading condition.

321. The whole Roman army, including the consuls, Roman army pass under the yoke. passed, unarmed and almost naked, under the yoke.\* They were immediately to leave the Samnite territories. The two nations were henceforth to live on terms of equality, each according to their respective laws. Six hundred horsemen were given as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions.

This indignity produced, in the breasts of the haughty Romans, irreconcilable hatred towards the Samnites. The senate and assembly of the people did not consider themselves bound by the treaty. New levies and other formidable preparations were made for a continuance of the war.

The Samnites complained of the want of faith on the part of the Romans, but with the success which usually attends the complaints of the weak against the strong. In the battles which followed, the Romans sought to wash away their disgrace in the blood of their enemies. The fierceness of their encounters surpassed any thing in the previous history of Rome. After many years continuance, the war terminated in the conquest of Samnium.

272.  
Samnites subdued.

\* The yoke was a kind of gallows, composed of three spears, two being fixed in the ground, and the third laid across on the top of the others.

Before its close, however, the Romans were attacked by the Etrurians whom they defeated. They also became involved in hostilities with the Tarentines, who invited to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a general of ambition and talents, who took Alexander for his model. When, however, he embarked for Italy, with a few thousand troops, anticipating the conquest of the western world, he soon found that he had not the enervated Persians to cope with, but a people who, it is probable, would have checked Alexander himself. The Tarentines, yielding themselves to their effeminate pleasures, trusted to him entirely for the defence of their country, and the management of the war. His first battle with the Romans was at Pandosia, and though fiercely contested, the military skill of Pyrrhus finally triumphed. The polished Greeks are said to have expressed astonishment at the tactics of the Romans, remarking, "These barbarians are by no means barbarous."

After the battle, Pyrrhus ravaged the country in the vicinity, took the camp of the Romans, and having formed alliances with the neighbouring tribes, marched towards Rome. When within fifteen leagues of the city, he despatched an ambassador, who proposed terms of peace. The Roman senate were engaged in preparations for a second battle. They now intrepidly replied that no proposals would be listened to, until the army of Pyrrhus should be withdrawn from Italy.

Fabricius, a Roman of great worth, but poor, was sent ambassador to procure the ransom of the Roman prisoners. Pyrrhus attempted to bribe him, but found the virtue of the Roman, incorruptible. He next showed his terrible elephants, thinking that the Roman would be intimidated at the prospect of an encounter with these enormous animals. But the stern Roman remained unmoved. After the return of Fabricius, and during the following years in which he was consul, the physician of Pyrrhus, sent him proposals for destroying his master by poison, on condition of being compensated by the Romans. Fabricius immediately conveyed to his enemy information of the treacherous purpose of his physician. Pyrrhus, touched with admiration of his virtue, and as an expression of gratitude for his own escape, released the Roman prisoners without ransom. Finding his hopes of an easy conquest of Italy, fallacious, and receiving a Sicilian deputation imploring his aid against the Carthaginians, he abandoned Italy, and passed over to Sicily. Here he was at first successful, but after having relieved the Sicilians, he assumed such a haughty control over them, that he lost their affections. The Tarentines, now reduced to distress by the Romans, soliciting his aid, he again embarked for Italy. He was even less successful in this enterprise than in the former. A battle was fought at Beneventum, in which he was defeated by the Romans, and compelled to return to Epirus.

266.

The Romans masters of Italy.

The Romans had now made themselves masters of Italy.

The relations sustained by the conquered nations to Rome were, however, various. Some were merely allies, retain-

ing their internal constitution, but obliged to pay tribute, and furnish auxiliary troops when demanded; others were compelled to receive Roman magistrates, annually elected.

## SECTION III.

## FIRST PUNIC WAR.

Rome, Carthage, and Sicily. Rome now extended her ambition beyond the borders of Italy, to Sicily, and to Carthage. Syracuse, six years after the disastrous expedition of Athens against it, fell under the dominion of Dionysius the elder, an able, and it is said a useful prince. His son, Dionysius the younger, succeeded to his throne, but not to his virtues. His cousin Dion, and afterwards the amiable Corinthian, Timoleon, overthrew his power. But the Syracusans had not sufficient virtue to keep their recovered freedom. Agathocles, a man of splendid talents and military renown, seized the sovereign authority, and carried his arms into Africa. Dying childless, the affairs of his country fell into confusion, and Pyrrhus was called over to reduce them to order, but in vain. Hiero, a descendant of Gelon, then obtained the regal authority.

Pyrrhus was carrying on the war with the Carthaginians, and had obtained some advantages, when the appearance of a new enemy united the Syracusans and Carthaginians, for a time, in a common league.

A body of mercenary troops, called the Mamertines, whom Agathocles had employed in his wars, entered Messina as friends, but murdered the inhabitants and obtained forcible possession of the city. The Carthaginians and Syracusans were invited to aid the Messenians; while the Mamertines applied to the Romans. Justice inclined the Roman senate to hesitate, but did not deter them from yielding to the stronger dictates of ambition, which prompted them to interfere, that

264.

First Punic war  
begins.

they might turn the dissensions of their neighbours to their own advantage. They sent troops to the aid of the marauders. Thus commenced the first Punic war.

The year following, Hiero changing sides, united himself with the Romans, and formed with them, a plan for the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Sicily. Agrigentum, after a siege

Agrigentum taken  
by the Romans.

of several months, fell into the hands of the Romans.

They now perceived the necessity of a navy, in order to a successful contest with Carthage, now mistress of the sea.

Carthage was now at the height of her power, possessed of a large portion of Africa, Spain, and Sicily, with Sardinia and other islands. But Rome had a more free constitution; her warlike citizens fought their own battles, while those of Carthage were entrusted to men of other countries, who served for pay.

A Carthaginian galley had been taken on the coast of Italy. This served the Romans as a model. With incredible industry, they set about building a fleet. In the

The Romans begin  
to build a fleet.

mean time, they inured their men to naval exercises. Benches similar to those of the galleys, were prepared on land, where they were taught to perform the action of rowing. In two months the fleet was equipped. After a little practice of the rowers on shipboard, Duillius,

260. the commander, sailed in pursuit of the enemy.  
 First naval victory of the Romans. The two fleets met, and the Romans obtained their first naval victory. —

After two years, a project was formed for transferring the war to Africa. To prevent its execution, the Carthaginians hazarded

256. another naval engagement, which took place off the coast of Sicily. Victory again declared for the Romans.  
 Second naval victory of the Romans.

Regulus. Regulus, to whom was committed the African expedition, landed and took Tunis, where he encamped. The Carthaginians at this time received a reinforcement of troops from Greece, commanded by Xantippus, a Lacedæmonian. To his military skill may be attributed their subsequent success. A battle was now fought under the walls of Carthage, in which Regulus was defeated, and taken prisoner. The Carthaginians, tired of the war, sent Regulus to Rome, to offer terms of peace; but bound him by an oath to return if the terms offered were not accepted. The terms, by the advice of Regulus, were not accepted. He returned a willing prisoner, and died in captivity.

The following year, a larger Roman fleet than had ever before been put to sea, was fitted out, and having obtained a victory over the enemy, sailed into Africa to bring off the few Roman soldiers who escaped after the defeat of Regulus. For several years the war was carried on mostly at sea, and with so equal advantage, that there was no prospect of peace.

At length a victory obtained by Lutatius, the Roman consul, over the Carthaginian fleet, made the Romans masters of the sea, and by depriving the Carthaginians of the means of conveying succours to their Sicilian cities, obliged them to accept conditions of peace.  
 The Romans masters of the sea.  
 241.  
 End of the first Punic War.

Carthage was deprived of all her possessions in Sicily, compelled to pay the Romans a considerable sum of money, and to restore all their prisoners without ransom. The Carthaginians thus exhibited a character the reverse of that of their enemies; who never, in the most disastrous days of the republic, thought of purchasing safety by submission to a foreign foe.

Peace was hardly concluded, when the Carthaginians were involved in a war with the mercenaries whom they had employed. Though finally victorious, the republic was greatly exhausted.

The mercenaries in Sardinia, catching the spirit of insurrection, rose, murdered the Carthaginians, and obtained possession of the island. The Romans, regardless of their friendly relations with Carthage, interfered, and made themselves masters of the island. The Carthaginians remonstrated, but unable in their present weakened  
 231.  
 The Romans seize Sardinia.



state to support their right by arms, were obliged to submit to another treaty, in which Sardinia was ceded to Rome. But the injustice which the Carthaginians suffered, rankled in their bosoms; and to this the second Punic war, though delayed some years, may be fairly traced.

The Carthaginians sought compensation for their late losses, by extending their conquests over Spain. Here also the Romans jealously interfered, and a treaty was forced upon them, restricting their conquests to the further side of the Iberus.

237.

Hamilcar.

Hamilcar was the Carthaginian general in Spain. He was the inveterate foe of Rome, and laid all his plans with a view to the humiliation of that haughty republic. He carried with him his son Hannibal, then but nine years of age, whom he compelled to swear upon the altar, that he would

Hannibal swears  
eternal enmity to  
Rome.

declare himself an eternal enemy of Rome, as soon as his age would permit. During the seventeen years that Hamilcar, and his son-in-law, Asdrubal, commanded in Spain, most of the southern part of the peninsula submitted to their arms. To secure the country, As-

Asdrubal builds  
New Carthage.

drubal built the city of New Carthage, or Carthagera.

After the close of the first Punic war, Rome sent a fleet into the Adriatic, to put a stop to the depredations of the Illyrian pirates. This fleet secured the dominion of the Adriatic, and conquered a part of Illyria. The Greeks, who had suffered greatly from the piratical expeditions of the Illyrians, hailed Rome as a deliverer; while many of the Grecian cities now formally put themselves under the protection of the senate.

The Gauls had frequently, since the destruction of Rome by Brennus, made irruptions into the Roman provinces, having joined both the Etrurians and Samnites. The north had, however, remained quiet for some time, and as yet the Romans had not crossed the Po. Another

222.

Cisalpine Gaul re-  
duced to a Roman  
province.

irruption of the barbarians now took place, which ended in their defeat at the battle of Clusium, and the subjection of Cisalpine Gaul to the Roman dominion.

Hannibal commands  
the Carthaginian  
army in Spain.

Hannibal, who on the death of Asdrubal obtained the command of the Carthaginian army in Spain, early bent his thoughts towards the execution of the plan meditated by his father, of humbling the pride of Rome. His first act was to besiege Saguntum, a city of Spain, under Roman protection. Ambassadors were despatched first to Hannibal, who refused on

219.

He besieges Sagun-  
tum.

some frivolous pretext to admit them to an audience; then to the senate of Carthage, from whom they received no satisfaction. Meanwhile Hannibal prosecuted the siege with vigour, and at length took the city.

## SECTION IV.

## SECOND PUNIC WAR.

The fate of Saguntum was no sooner known at Rome, than war was declared.

218.

Hannibal prepares  
to pass the Alps.

Hannibal determined to make Italy the seat of it. With this view he prepared to pass the Alps; an achievement which the Romans believed to be altogether impracticable. He had previously taken measures for securing the favour of the nations through whose territories he must pass; having distributed gold with an unsparing hand among the barbarian chiefs. Early in the spring he commenced his march. Having reduced the nations which lay at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, he here left his general, Hanno, with a sufficient force to guard their narrow passes. He also dismissed about ten thousand of his troops, sending them home with a view of securing their good will. The Gauls, being informed that the war was against Italy, and that Hannibal desired only to pass through their territories as a friend, aided him on his way. On his arrival at the Rhone,

His passage over the  
Rhone disputed.

however, he found the nations who dwelt on the opposite side, drawn up to prevent his passage. A detachment of troops was immediately sent farther up the river. Having crossed it in secrecy, they came down on the rear of the Gauls, who finding themselves surrounded, immediately dispersed.

Scipio and Sempromius,  
Roman consuls.

Publius Cornelius Scipio, and Tiberius Sempromius, were the Roman consuls for this year. To the former, was assigned Spain; to the latter, Africa and Sicily. Scipio departed for his province, and finding that Hannibal had already crossed the Pyrenees, pitched his camp at one of the mouths of the Rhone. Hannibal, finding himself in the immediate vicinity of a Roman army, determined to avoid a general battle. He withdrew his forces from the sea, and followed up the waters of the Rhone until he arrived at the foot of the Alps. Here the hearts of the most courageous grew faint. The mountains with their snowy tops penetrating the clouds, the naked and apparently inaccessible cliffs over which their path must lie, the hostile Gauls, hovering on the precipices which hung over their heads, and ready on their first attempt to ascend, to precipitate them into the depths below, were objects calculated to fill them with dismay. Hannibal used every art to revive their courage. Having ascertained that the mountaineers

Hannibal passes the  
Alps.

abandoned the pass at night, he with a small party of light troops passed rapidly through it, making himself master of the eminences on which the Gauls had, during the previous day, been posted. At early dawn, the army commenced its ascent. The Gauls perceiving it, hastened to their

usual post, but to their surprise, beheld it in possession of the enemy. The mountaineers now pressed into the pass by various circuitous routes, augmenting the terror and confusion of the army, until Hannibal was compelled to leave the eminence in order to disperse them. The army at length gained the first pass; but this was only the commencement of difficulties; sometimes, falling into ambush through the treachery of guides; again, led through bewildering tracks, and over wrong roads; now, intercepted by large bodies of the hostile Gauls in battle array; then, finding the path blocked up by tremendous rocks, rolled from the precipices above, crushing in their onward course both man and beast. But the resolute Hannibal still pursued his way, until on the ninth day he completed his ascent, and reached the summit. Snow having now fallen several inches in depth, increased the dangers of the way. The army, dejected and dispirited, hopeless of any termination of their toils, were sinking into utter despondency, when Hannibal ordered them to halt on a projecting eminence. Here they looked down and beheld the valley of the Po, in all its beauty and luxuriance, stretching out before them.

Their trials were not, however, ended. A difficult descent, through narrow and slippery defiles, was before them. Hannibal employed fifteen days in the passage of the Alps, and it was five months from the time of his leaving New Carthage, before he arrived in Italy.

The consul Scipio had returned from the Rhone, and was now encamped with his legions at the Ticinus. Here Hannibal met him, and obliged him to retreat. The desertion of a large body of Gauls from the Romans, was the consequence of this defeat. Scipio apprehended a general revolt, and removed his camp to the river Trebia. Sempronius had now joined his colleague, and the two consuls, with the whole strength of the Roman army, were ready to oppose the future progress of the Carthaginians. Another battle was fought at Trebia,

where the fortune of Carthage again triumphed. When the news of a second defeat of a consular army was brought to Rome, the whole city was in consternation, but no sound of submission was heard.

The passage of the Carthaginians over the Appenines, on account of a severe storm proved nearly as destructive as that over the Alps. Yet, early in the spring, Hannibal was again prepared for battle.

217.

Battle at Lake Thrasymenus.

Drawing the consul Flaminius into an ambuscade near lake Thrasymenus, a dreadful conflict ensued. The Romans, surrounded by woods and morasses, and pressed on all sides by their enemy, fought with desperation. An earthquake, which overthrew many of the cities of Italy, and turned rivers out of their courses, passed unnoticed by the furious combatants. The genius of Hannibal again prevailed.

The misfortunes of Rome thickened around her. The appointment of a dictator was regarded as her almost only hope.

218.  
Fabius Maximus,  
Dictator.

Fabius Maximus, (with whom, on account of his prudence, the American Washington has been compared,) was elected to the office. He commenced

his administration by a strict attention to religious observances. He adopted a plan which, had it been continued, might have prevented the disaster of Cannæ, and have driven the Carthaginians from Italy. He ordered the inhabitants dwelling in insecure towns, to remove to places of greater safety; and those of the country through which Hannibal must pass, to leave their homes, having first burned their houses, and destroyed whatever could afford the enemy subsistence. He avoided a battle, hovered near the enemy, checking their depredations, and destroying all their supplies.

Hannibal, finding that the measures which he took to draw Fabius into an engagement, were ineffectual, wreaked his sworn vengeance upon Rome, by laying waste her fairest possessions.

When the army of Fabius beheld from the tops of the mountains, the beautiful vale of Campania wasted by fire, its elegant villas smoking in ruins, and desolation spreading on every side, distrust of the motives and policy of their commander, which had before lurked in their hearts, now broke forth into open murmurs.

Scipio victorious  
over the Carthagi-  
nian fleet near the  
Iberus.

While these events passed in Italy, the Romans, under Scipio, had obtained a victory over the Carthaginian fleet near the mouth of the Iberus, after which many of the nations adjacent to the Iberus

submitted to them.

Although the measures of Fabius had, during the preceding campaign, preserved the Roman army entire, yet cabals were forming against him, and the citizens regarded him as deficient in energy. The sole authority was taken from him, yet his counsels so far prevailed, that for two years, Hannibal was not able to draw the Roman army to a general engagement. When, however, Caius Terentius

216.

Battle of Cannæ.

Varro attained the consulship, a different course was pursued. Hannibal drew him into an engagement at Cannæ, where he was defeated. The flower of the Roman youth lay dead upon the most disastrous of the battle fields of Italy.\*

Hannibal's con-  
quests in Lower It-  
aly.

Hannibal, instead of proceeding to Rome, now turned his attention to the reduction of Lower Italy.

The most powerful of its nations submitted to his arms, or sought his alliance. He established his quarters in Capua. The luxurious habits and effeminate manners which his soldiers here acquired, are assigned as the prime cause of his subsequent decline. Envy and jealousy had risen against him at home, and the recruits which were expected from Carthage were withheld.

In expectation of aid from Philip, king of Macedonia, with whom he had now formed a treaty, and of succours from Spain under the command of his brother Asdrubal, Hannibal now acted merely on the defensive. The policy of the Romans furnished Philip with employment, by stirring up enemies against him in his own country. In the meantime the Romans were regaining their strength, new legions

\* It was on this battle field, that a great quantity of gold rings were taken from the fingers of the dead Roman knights.

were formed, and the spirits of the nation revived. Capua was at length taken from Hannibal, and though he had marched boldly to Rome, yet, when he learned that while encamped before one of its gates, his presence had inspired so little terror that recruits for the army in Spain had passed out of the other, he retired in chagrin. Asdrubal, his brother, having effected the passage of the Alps, and arrived in the north of Italy, was met and defeated by the Roman armies, near the river Metaurus, and slain. Hannibal, on learning this, exclaimed, "It is done; in losing my brother I have lost all my hope, all my good fortune."

207.

Asdrubal slain.

Meanwhile the younger Scipio had, by the terror of his arms, re-established the Roman power over the territories of Spain, and by his engaging virtues, won the hearts of the people.

Scipio reconquers Spain.

So great was the renown which he had acquired, that after his return to Italy, elected consul, and having Sicily assigned as his province, he had power to carry the war into Africa at his pleasure. He accordingly invaded Africa, where his success compelled the Carthaginians to recall the army from Italy.

Invades Africa.

The grief of Hannibal, when he received the mandate to return, was extreme. He did not even yet despair of the conquest of Rome. On his arrival at Carthage, he took the command of the army, and advanced five days into the country, when he encamped at Zama. A battle ensued, in which, though the valour of the Carthaginians sustained their reputation, the Romans obtained a complete victory.

202.

Battle of Zama.

Scipio advances towards Carthage.

201.

Treaty of peace.

The Carthaginians agreed to relinquish their possessions in Spain, and thenceforth to restrict their power to Africa; to deliver up the Roman prisoners; to destroy their navy; and to pay tribute to Rome.

Carthage, thus deprived of its foreign possessions, and its navy, though enjoying its own constitution, and the name of an independent republic, was effectually deprived of all means of thwarting the boundless ambition of Rome. Even on the side of Africa, her power was soon checked. Masinissa, prince of Numidia, who had aided the Romans in the late war, was by them established in his kingdom; and being declared an ally of Rome, the Carthaginians were obliged to remain at peace with him.

The Romans design the conquest of Greece.

The subjugation of Greece next occupied the attention of the Romans. They had drawn the Ætolians, and, subsequently, several other Grecian states, into a league of alliance. Some of the Grecian cities were dissatisfied with the terms of the peace with Philip of Macedonia,

which followed the "Social War." The Romans had a dislike to Philip, on account of a treaty which he had made with Hannibal, while he was victorious in Italy. Under these circumstances, they introduced an army into Greece, commanded by the consul Acilius.

192.

War with Antiochus, king of Syria.

Antiochus the Great, of the family of the Seleucidae, was now on the throne of Syria. To him Hannibal, persecuted by his enemies, and exiled from his country, fled. He incited Antiochus, who was very susceptible to flattery, to fancy himself destined to become a great conqueror, and to desire to cope with the Romans. Laying claim to possessions in Greece, Antiochus marched an army into Thessaly, took several cities, and proceeded to the pass of Thermopylae, where he was met and defeated by the Roman army under Acilius. He escaped with a very few of his troops to Colchis, from whence he returned to Asia. The cities and fortresses, of which he had obtained possession, surrendered to the Romans.

Acilius having expelled Antiochus from Greece, and the Romans having obtained several naval victories, the next consul, Lucius Scipio,

190.

Battle of Magnesia.

brother to the conqueror of Hannibal, carried his arms into Asia. A battle was fought at Magnesia, near mount Siphylus, in which Antiochus suffered an entire defeat. He now sued for peace, which he obtained only by resigning his pretensions in Europe, and by the cession of all Lesser Asia, as far as Mount Taurus, and the surrender of half his ships.

The Romans free the Greek cities of Asia Minor.

With a show of magnanimity, the Romans freed the Greek cities of Asia Minor, dividing the remainder of the conquered lands between their allies. But their moderation was only in appearance. In

reality, they now held sway from the Atlantic to the Euphrates. After the peace with Antiochus, the persecuted Hannibal, fearful of being delivered to the Romans, fled to Prusias, king of Bythnia. The Romans demanded him, and he, whose great but misguided talents

Hannibal destroys himself.

had been employed for the destruction of his fellow-beings, now, far from home and friends, raised his hand against himself.

Philip of Macedonia.

In the meantime, Philip of Macedonia, was extending his power, and waiting for an occasion to make war upon the Romans. The condition of his young son, Demetrius, whom he had been compelled to surrender as a hostage, and who was now at Rome, for a time delayed the vengeance of the father. At length he received him. The amiable youth had become attached to the Roman people, and his innocent expressions were attributed by his elder brother, Perseus, to treasonable connexion with the enemy of his country, a design to dethrone his father, and (supported by the Romans) to become monarch in his stead. By order of Philip, he was secretly put to death. Too late, the repentant father found that he had sacrificed an innocent son, to a base and jealous deceiver. Struck with remorse, he died, and left his crown to the unworthy Perseus.

171.

Perseus.

Perseus now sought every where, to stir up enmity against the Romans. He partially succeeded; war was declared; but his avarice rendered him unpopular, and he afforded but little aid to his allies. The Romans, on their part, did not prosecute the war in Greece with their usual vigour, till at length, Paulus Æmilius, being elected consul, obtained a decisive victory over Perseus at Pydna. Perseus fled, was pursued, taken, and with his family carried captive to Rome.

165.

Triumph of Paulus  
Æmilius.

A triumph, as was the case in great successes, was now granted, by the Roman senate, to the conqueror.—History gives no account of any exhibitions of human vanity, equal to the triumphs of the victorious generals of Rome.—On this occasion, three days were consumed in gorgeous processions, in which the spoils of the vanquished were paraded through the streets, with splendid military shows and martial music. Last came Paulus Æmilius in his pompous chariot, blazing with gold and purple. Behind the triumphal car of the victor, on foot and clothed in black, followed the conquered king, with his little children, holding forth their hands, and imploring the pity of the spectators. This, says Plutarch, the children of Perseus had been *taught* to do; for they were too young to feel their miserable degradation. When Perseus begged of his conqueror to be spared this degrading exhibition, Æmilius replied by hinting to him, that he might spare himself from it by committing suicide;—yet, Paulus Æmilius was regarded in those days as a man of great moderation. It would be well if those who deny the progressive improvement of man, and the meliorating influences of that religion which teaches us to give glory to God, and to be merciful to man, would consider, how, at this day, such a spectacle as the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, would be regarded in a Christian country. The miserable Perseus ended his days in a Roman prison, and Macedonia remained subject to the Roman power.

Macedonia subject  
to the Romans.War between Syria  
and Egypt.

In the meantime, Antiochus Epiphanes, now on the throne of Syria, was engaged in a war with Egypt, whose kings, Philometer and Ptolemy Physcon, finding themselves hard pressed, some of their cities having already fallen into the hands of Antiochus, requested the interference of the Roman senate. They sent ambassadors, requiring of the Syrian prince, in an authoritative tone, to restore the places which he had taken from the Egyptians. Such was the terror of the Roman name that he felt himself obliged to submit to the imperious mandate.

## CHAPTER II.

## SECTION I.

## THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.

149. Fifty years having elapsed since the close of the second Punic war, the industrious Carthaginians had repaired their ruined city, so that it began to exhibit traces of its former splendour.

Cato urges the destruction of Carthage.

Cato, the censor, an austere man, now in his dotage, whose feelings of justice and sympathy seem not to have extended beyond the boundaries of the Roman territory, having had occasion to visit Carthage, gave to the senate, on his return, such accounts of its growing power, that he awakened their jealousy, ending, as Plutarch says, all his speeches, no matter on what subject they began, by saying, "and in my opinion, Carthage must be destroyed." Pretexts were soon found in the disputes which arose between Masinissa, king of Numidia, and the Carthaginians. While the senate were deliberating on the expediency of immediate war, deputies were received from Utica,

Utica submits to the Romans.

Roman fleet sent to Africa.

Carthaginians sue for peace.

the second city of Africa, and in the neighbourhood of Carthage, surrendering their city to the Roman power. Having now a convenient depot, the senate no longer hesitated to send a fleet to Africa, although the Carthaginian ambassadors at Rome made offers of satisfaction and submission. No sooner was it known at Carthage that the Roman fleet had arrived at Utica, than ambassadors were despatched thither also, to make all necessary concessions in order to obtain peace. Orders were issued by the Roman commander for conveying the munitions of war from Carthage to the Roman camp. The Carthaginians gave them up; but the means of defence were no sooner removed from their city, than their ambassadors were informed that it was the will of the Roman senate, that Carthage should be destroyed; and they therefore commanded that all the citizens should depart. Astonished and overwhelmed with grief, the ambassadors attempted by the most earnest supplications, to obtain the mercy of those who appeared deaf to the claims of justice. They could only so far prevail, as to obtain permission to send another embassy to Rome. The deputies returned to the city, and communicated the confirmation of the barbarous decree. The citizens, in despair, resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity. The delay of the Roman consuls, who apprehended no resistance from a disarmed city, afforded the Carthaginians an opportunity to prepare for the siege. The temples, palaces, and markets, were, converted into arsenals,



where men and women worked day and night in the manufacture of arms. But these preparations, while they delayed, could not avert the fate of the city. After a bravely sustained siege of three years, Carthage capitulated, with no other condition than that the lives of those who were willing to leave the citadel, should be spared. The

146.

Carthage burnt.

city, which had existed for seven hundred years, and at the commencement of the war contained 700,000 inhabitants, was now reduced to ashes. It is related that Scipio, the consul, weeping over its ruins, repeated a verse from Homer on the mutability of human greatness, alluding to what would one day be the fate of Rome also.

Troubles having arisen between the members of the Achæan league, which had till this time preserved a shadow

147.

The Romans attempt to dissolve the Achæan league.

of liberty, the Romans availed themselves of this opportunity afforded by their dissensions, for dissolving it. Commissioners were sent to Corinth, with orders to separate as many states as possible from the league. When, in the execution of their commission, they

called on the league to surrender those places in the Peloponnesus, formerly occupied by the Macedonian king, the Corinthian multitude became so furious as to insult the ambassadors, who were obliged to

Rome declares war upon Achaia.

flee from their violence. This furnished the Romans with a pretext for war. The Achæans, although heroic in their efforts to restore the freedom of Greece, only perished in the attempt. Critolaus, their general, was defeated, and in the same year that Carthage was burned, Corinth was also taken and destroyed; and Greece under the name of Achaia, became henceforth a Roman province.

146.

Corinth destroyed, and Greece a Roman province.

Thus, in the west, the last feeble glimmering of Grecian liberty had become extinguished; in the south, Carthage lay smoking in ruins; and in the east, Syria had bowed in humble submission to the mandate of the haughty republic. Spain, although the native Spaniards maintained long-continued and obstinate wars in defence of their liberty, was mostly reduced to submission.\*

133.

Pergamus bequeathed to Rome.

About this time the kingdom of Pergamus was bequeathed to Rome, by its monarch Attalus III.

The acquisition of such immense territories, while

\* These wars commenced soon after the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Spain, and continued with little intermission. Cato the Censor, had at one time reduced Hither Spain, into a state of submission; but the contest was soon renewed, and carried on with such success by the natives, as to give even the Roman soldiers a dread of going into that province. During the wars with Carthage and Achaia, Viriathus, a native Lusitanian, was raised to the supreme command in his nation, and uniting various tribes of Hither and Farther Spain, under his command, proved a most formidable foe. The Romans at length triumphed over him, not in open warfare, but by procuring his assassination. This act, contrasted with the conduct of the consul in the war with Pyrrhus, proclaims the degeneracy which had already taken place in the Roman character.

it raised the Roman name to the highest pitch of grandeur, and drew into the treasury the wealth of so many remote nations, at the same time corrupted the morals of the people, and thus undermined the foundation of the republic. From this period, bribery and corruption swayed the senate at home, and extortion and oppression marked the administration of the provincial governments abroad. Factions and internal convulsions now appeared in the city, and distracted the state. Rome was divided into aristocratic and democratic parties, whose contests were more destructive than the ancient dissensions between the patricians and plebeians. The power of the senate had given rise to a family aristocracy, extremely odious to the people. A law called the Licinian law, from Licinius Stolo, who proposed it, which restricted the possession of public land to five hundred acres, had for a while restrained the avarice of the wealthy, and enabled the poor to obtain their farms at moderate rents. The power of the aristocracy had, however, gradually increased, until they had now secured to themselves the public lands, which were cultivated by their slaves. In consequence of this, many of the poor, who were called on for military services, were left without the means of procuring a livelihood; while the rich enjoyed the fruits of all their victories and conquests.

Corruption of public morals, and consequent disorders.

An agrarian law was proposed by the tribune of the people, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, as a means of improving their condition, which he hoped to effect by a juster distribution of the public lands, and not, as some have supposed, by taking the private property of the rich, and giving it to the poor. The first law proposed, was mild in its character, but the enthusiastic zeal of the populace, who began to look with hope for the establishment of their rights, and the obstinacy with which the nobles clung to their usurped privileges, soon brought on more violent measures. A renewal of the Licinian law, was at length effected. Tiberius Gracchus made a further proposal, that the treasures of Attalus should be divided among the people. The nobility resisted—sedition ensued, in which Tiberius and three hundred of the citizens fell victims.

Although the leader was destroyed, the party was by no means crushed. Tiberius had made the people feel the power of their tribunes, and they resolved to exercise and increase it.

121.

Caius Gracchus.

Caius Gracchus, a brother of Tiberius, some years afterwards, obtained the office. He proposed several laws which tended to diminish the power of the senate, while they increased that of the people. A tumult more threatening in its aspect than that which occasioned the death of Tiberius, now arose; Caius was slain, and about three thousand of his friends perished. The aristocratic party who had thus triumphed, procured the repeal of the agrarian laws, confiscated the goods of Caius, and prohibited his family from wearing mourning. The memory of the Gracchi, however, was revered by the people, who afterwards erected statues to them, in the most public part of the city.

112.

Jugurthine War.

Soon after these events, occurred a war with Jugurtha, king of Numidia. Hiempsal, the son and successor of Masinissa, had adopted him into his family, and divided the kingdom of Numidia between him and his two sons. Jugurtha had dethroned the sons of Hiempsal, and seized upon the whole kingdom; and for a time, his acts and bribery had prevented the Roman senate from declaring war. At length his crimes compelled them to proceed against him. The consul Metellus, a man of great merit, was despatched into Africa, and prevailing over the infamous Jugurtha, was bringing the war to a favourable termination, when Marius, a new demagogue, who by his bravery had obtained the favour of the people, was appointed to the chief command, and snatched from Metellus the glory of the war. Bocchus, king of Upper Numidia, an ally of Jugurtha, privately offered to deliver him up to Sylla, who was an officer in the army of Marius. Sylla went to the camp of Bocchus, where Jugurtha was given into his hands. The ambitious Sylla had a seal prepared representing the exploit, and thenceforth claimed the honour of terminating the war. Thus began the quarrel between Marius and Sylla.

Invasion of the Cim-  
bri, &c.

The Cimbri, the Teutones, and other barbarians now poured down from the north. The senate disliking Marius, and unwilling that a plebeian should enjoy the honors of the consulate, were, notwithstanding, obliged to make use again of his military talents, to conduct their armies against the invaders. He met and defeated them near the mouth of the Rhone, where, it is said, 100,000 of them were slain. Another division of the barbarians had descended into the plains of Italy, and threatened Rome. There, also, Marius met and vanquished them.

Marius and Metellus.

Marius having now delivered Rome from the dread of foreign enemies, returned to disturb her domestic tranquillity, by the indulgence of the hatred and revenge which rankled in his heart. He now aspired to a sixth consulate, which he is said to have obtained by bribery. His arts, and the fame of his military achievements enabled him to sway the minds of the multitude at will, while the hatred which he bore to the patricians, seemed only increased by his successes. Metellus, who had been supplanted by Marius in the Jugurthine war, possessed inflexible integrity, and every where bore about him the spirit of better days. He was, consequently, an object of extreme dislike to a demagogue like Marius. Marius therefore resolved to remove him beyond the possibility of interfering in the affairs of the state. With this view, he associated with himself Saturninus, a tribune of the people, and Glaucia, a prætor, who possessed great power with the seditious populace. By his instrumentality, laws were passed, increasing to an alarming degree, the power of the democracy. The insolence and crimes of the popular party, headed by a seditious tribune, now knew no bounds. Marius, although at first he encouraged them, in order to effect his own purposes, was at length obliged to call out a

body of soldiers to suppress their lawless proceedings. Thus he incurred their ill will. Hatred already existed between him and the senate. Sylla, his implacable enemy, was rapidly increasing in popularity, and Metellus, whose banishment he had procured, was recalled from exile. Marius, foreseeing evil, withdrew from Rome. Other and pressing dangers for a while occupied the nation, and gave the factious spirit of the citizens employment without the walls of Rome.

91.

The Social War.

The Italian allies of Rome had, from time to time, been flattered with the hope of obtaining citizenship, until, despairing of the accomplishment of their wishes, and driven by continued oppressions, they formed a league among themselves which threatened to subvert the power of Rome itself. This contest was marked by frequent and bloody battles; victory sometimes declaring in favour of the allies, sometimes for Rome. This war, called the Social, or Marsian war, was finally terminated by concessions on the part of the Romans; the allies eventually obtaining all the privileges which they demanded.

Foreign Tumults.

While these events were disturbing the peace of the republic, Asia was in a constant state of tumult and disorder, and Egypt, under the government of the degenerate sons of Ptolemy, rapidly sinking.—An insurrection of the Jews, which had taken place in consequence of their persecution by Antiochus Epiphanes of Syria, had ripened into open rebellion, and, though maintained at the expense of constant wars with Syria, finally resulted in the establishment of a government of their own. Armenia, Parthia, and Bactria had become independent kingdoms.—Pontus, also, by obtaining Phrygia of the Romans, and by encroachments upon the surrounding nations, had become enlarged in extent, and now held under Mithridates, a prince of enterprise and talents, the first rank among the Asiatic powers.

Mithridatic War.

Mithridates, during his conquests in Asia Minor, had given indications of his hostile views towards Rome, by putting to death great numbers of the Roman citizens of Lesser Asia. The factions in Rome were still distracting the republic. During the Marsian war, in which both Marius and Sylla had been employed, Sylla had increased in popularity, and Marius had declined. War with Mithridates being declared, Marius, whose subserviency to the populace had produced new disorders, procured himself to be chosen to the command, but the army refusing to obey him, the command was transferred to Sylla.

88.

Marius and Sylla.

Open war between the rivals, ensued. The fortune of Sylla triumphed;—Marius was driven into exile, and a price set upon his head, but, with great hazard, he effected his escape into Africa.—Sylla, after his victory, departed for Asia, but not until by his cruelties he had rendered himself obnoxious to all parties at home.

The Grecian cities, with the exception of Athens, opened their gates to him. Athens declared for Mithridates. Sylla besieged, and took this city; violated the sanctua-

Sylla takes Athens.

ries of Greece, and made himself master of their treasures, which he distributed with lavish profusion among his soldiers; thereby attaching them to his service, but corrupting the army, and thus hastening the ruin of his country. Near Chæronea, in Bœotia, and at Orchomenus, in Thessaly, Sylla obtained victories over the forces of Mithridates, who was at length compelled to sue for peace.

*Mithridates submita.*

All claims to Cappadocia, Bithynia, and Lesser Asia, were relinquished, and on these terms Mithridates was declared a friend and ally of the Romans.

But while Sylla was thus triumphing in the East, a revolution was effected at Rome. The consul Cinna, of the party of Marius, after the departure of Sylla, having resorted to the former measures of the Marian faction, was expelled by his colleague Octavius. He now raised an army, recalled Marius, defeated the army of the senate, and entered Rome triumphant. Massacres and horrors followed the entrance of the vindictive Marius, and Rome, deluged with the blood of his victims, turned her eyes towards the victorious Sylla. Marius heard with appalling dread the approach of his enemy.—He sickened and died, and Rome rejoiced at the event.—Sylla, who had landed in Apulia, found himself surrounded by powerful armies, under the command of Marius, the son of his late enemy, and other distinguished commanders, Carbo, Scipio, and Norbanus. Young Pompey, who was rising into consequence, and had the command of some troops, with most of the leading citizens, declared for Sylla, who entered Rome like a triumphant conqueror. He had now overcome his enemies, and was supreme in Rome, but the senate and people were soon to learn that they had exchanged one brutal tyrant, for another still more bloody. He caused lists of such persons as he disliked, to be put up in public places, offering rewards to those who should kill them. These lists of proscription were daily renewed. Whoever favoured a proscribed person, although his own father or nearest relative, was himself devoted to death; while those who destroyed their friends, received ample rewards. The streets were filled with the dead. On one occasion, seven thousand persons were assembled in a small place, and there put to the sword; while the insulted senate, sitting near, were compelled to listen to their groans. To such degrading tyranny was Rome, the mistress of the world, compelled to submit; and thus were her cruelties to Carthage, and other fallen enemies, visited upon her own head.

Sylla had declared himself dictator; and in this capacity, he modified the laws to suit his own purposes. Afterwards he voluntarily abdicated his power, and although he escaped the chastisement which he deserved, from human hands, yet God smote him with a most loathsome disease, of which he died.—In the wars of Marius and Sylla, thirty persons of consular dignity, two hundred senators, and one hundred and fifty thousand Roman citizens, are said to have perished; while other thousands were left to drag out a miserable existence, without kindred, or friends, or means of subsistence.

## SECTION II.

68. In the east, another war with Mithridates had broken out. The consul Lucullus had obtained the command in that quarter, and conducted the war with such vigour and ability, that the second year he compelled Mithridates to fly to his son-in-law, Tigranes, king of Armenia. Tigranes, although he had before neglected to afford him any aid, now refused to deliver him up. Lucullus, therefore, carried the war into Armenia. At Tigranocerta, and Artaxata, the army of Lucullus obtained victories over the allied forces of these kings, but a mutiny among the Roman soldiers now embarrassed his movements, and enabled Mithridates to recover his strength.

In the mean time, a party adverse to Lucullus had arisen in Rome, and the command had been transferred to Pompey. The reputation which this young commander had acquired during a late war in Spain, had been increased by his conquest of the pirates of Cilicia and Isauria, and thus prepared the way for his appointment to the command in the east, which had long been the object of his desire. Immediately on receiving it, he proceeded, at the head of 30,000 chosen troops, to take the place of Lucullus.

Mithridates, the most powerful and able general with whom the Romans had contended since the days of Hannibal, had, with the aid of Tigranes, already reconquered most of his territories. His policy was to avoid a general battle, but to hover near the Romans, and by intercepting their convoys, to distress and reduce them.

Pompey felt the effects of these measures, and departed from Pontus into Armenia, determined to reduce that province, or force Mithridates to an engagement, in order to relieve it. Mithridates followed with his army. Pompey, failing to draw him into an engagement, besieged him in his camp for fifty days. Mithridates, reduced to distress, at dead of night attacked the Roman guards, broke through their intrenchments, and gained the open country. Pompey pursued, and finding unguarded passes, sent detachments, which secretly gained commanding positions in the rear of the Pontians. He then surprised their camp at night. Thus surrounded, they suffered a total defeat. Mithridates escaped with 800 horse; but even this remnant of his army forsook him and fled. With only his wife, his daughter, and one officer, he sought the court of Tigranes; but that timid monarch refused his father-in-law a shelter, and he pursued his way till he found a home among the more generous Scythians.

Pompey now concluded a treaty with Tigranes, by which he was received into the Roman alliance, and then proceeded northwards in pursuit of Mithridates. He passed two years in wars with the various northern nations, penetrating far into Scythia, and exposing himself and his army to the most extreme hardships and peril. Obtain.

ing no intelligence of Mithridates, and believing him dead, he retraced his course, proceeded to Pontus, and reduced those places which still remained faithful to the absent king.

63.

Pompey conquers  
Judæa.

Then leaving a few troops in Pontus, under the command of his lieutenants, he carried his armies into Syria, conquered Judæa, and penetrated to Arabia.

Mithridates re-  
appears.

After his departure from Pontus, Mithridates issued from his concealment, appeared in Pontus, at the head of a considerable army, and made himself master of several important places. But fortune had deserted him. His officers mutinied, and he sought in vain the alliance of the Scythians. He was preparing to lead what few troops remained with him, into Europe, and, by a union with the Gauls, to attack the Romans in that quarter, but his army murmured, and his son Pharnaces, availing himself of their disaffection, proclaimed himself king; and Mithridates, driven to despair, committed suicide.

Mithridates kills  
himself.

Pompey, after declaring Pharnaces an ally to the Romans, prepared to return to Italy. Rome rejoiced in his success, and on the proposal of Cicero, twelve days were set apart for offering thanksgivings to the gods.

## SECTION III.

Pompey, on his arrival in Italy, disbanded his army, to the great joy of the senate, who feared he would retain it, and after the examples of Marius and Sylla, make himself absolute in power.—Rome was  
Conspiracy of Cata- unquiet. The conspiracy of Cataline and his asso-  
line. ciates, which had for its object to extirpate the Roman senate, plunder the treasury, and set Rome on fire, had been detected, and the conspirators punished, through the patriotism of Cicero, (thence called the “father of his country;”) aided by the honest and philosophical Cato.

60.

First Triumvirate  
under Cæsar, Pom-  
pey and Crassus.

But the master spirit of the times was JULIUS CÆSAR, now just returned from a successful war in Spain. Concealing his boundless ambition, he was at Rome, paying court to the ladies, and acting the intriguing demagogue. Crassus, by assuming popular manners, by increasing his great wealth, and by constantly making himself useful to those who needed his aid, had, with far inferior talents, acquired power and influence equal to those of either Cæsar or Pompey. Crassus and Pompey were at variance. Cæsar artfully reconciled them, and the three having formed a union, divided between themselves, under the name of the triumvirate, the supreme power of the commonwealth.

Cæsar in Gaul.

Cæsar's next step was to get himself appointed to command an expedition against the Gauls.

Crassus in Parthia.

The succeeding year, Crassus departed for Asia, to carry on a new war against the Parthians, while

Pompey remained at Rome at the head of the affairs of Italy, Africa, and Spain.

Parthia, which by coming into collision with an European power, now for the first time makes a conspicuous figure in history, was an ancient nation of whose early history little is known. It was successively subject to the Medes, the Persians, and to Alexander the Great. In the division of Alexander's kingdom, it fell to the portion of Seleucus, and continued, for a considerable time, a part of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ; at length it revolted, and became an independent government. Arsaces, the principal instigator of the revolt, was declared king, and his family had continued on the throne until the present time. The monarchs of Syria had made several efforts to recover this province, but without success; while the Parthians had at various times extended the boundaries of their kingdom, by conquests over their neighbours. At one period, (soon after the death of Antiochus Epiphanes,) the Parthian kingdom extended from the Euphrates eastward beyond the Indus. Internal dissensions, however, and the power of Tigranes, of Armenia, and of Mithridates, of Pontus, had considerably reduced its limits, and weakened its strength.

A treaty with the Parthians had been entered into by Lucullus, and renewed by Pompey, the terms of which had been faithfully kept by the Parthians, and the two nations were now in peace. But Crassus wishing to increase his wealth, and to equal the military fame of his rivals, undertook against them an unprovoked and unrighteous war. At the head of the Roman legions, he passed through Syria and Judæa, plundered the temple at Jerusalem, crossed the Euphrates, and reduced many towns of Mesopotamia.

The Parthians rose in arms, and while Crassus laid up his army in winter quarters, retook the places he had conquered. When he recommenced his march, they provided him with an artful adviser in Ariamnes, an Arabian chief, to whom Crassus gave ear, as he made great pretences of friendship and gratitude to the Romans, for services rendered his father. Deaf to the remonstrances of Caius Cassius, an able general, and of other officers and friends, who knew the Parthian mode of warfare, he persisted in keeping the open plains of Mesopotamia. For some time the march of the army was through a fertile and well watered country, where the wants of the soldiers were easily and fully supplied. Soon, however, the scene changed, and they entered upon dry and sandy plains, where neither stream, nor tree, nor plant appeared. Besides, they soon found that they were in the midst of an hostile army. The Parthians attacked them. The Romans fought bravely, but in vain; whether advancing, or retreating, the discharge of the Parthian arrows were equally effective. The army of Crassus, surrounded on all sides, was reduced to the

53.

Crassus defeated  
and slain.

greatest extremity; a large division was totally defeated; and his son, who commanded it, slain. Crassus, at length, effected a retreat, and threw himself into Carræ; thither he was pursued by Surena, the Parthian general, and fearful of an assault, he determined, unknown to the in-



habitants, to leave the city. His design was discovered by Surena, and again a guide was suborned, who led him into marshes, where he was overtaken, and finally slain. Of all his army, only 500 horse, under the command of Cassius, escaped. Twenty thousand are said to have been slain by the Parthians, and ten thousand taken prisoners.

Cæsar had at first received the government of Gaul for five years, but at their expiration, he was involved in wars with the barbarians, and another five years were added to the time.

During this period, his daring achievements, his adventurous spirit, his personal toils and exposures, exhibited military talents equal, if not superior, to those of Alexander, and of Hannibal. To these he added, what neither of them possessed, the polish of the finished scholar. The commanding powers of language were his, whether he chose to exert them in speaking, or in writing. He had in his youth pursued his education in Greece, whither Cicero, Cato, and other eminent orators, at this golden period of Roman eloquence, resorted for instruction; the Romans thus ceding the nobler palm of the arts of peace, to the nation whom they had mastered in war.

#### SECTION IV.

The expeditions of Cæsar, as described by himself, in his Commentaries, bring into notice places not before known in history.

55. The most remarkable of them is Britain, which Cæsar invades. He twice invaded. He found it inhabited by barbarous tribes, who subsisted mostly on milk and flesh. He enlarged the bounds of the Roman empire towards the southern limits of Gaul, and found many different tribes, of new and singular appearance. He also invaded Germany and had bloody battles with its wandering natives, who dwelt not in cities, and were distinguished by peculiar customs, among which was the religious veneration which they paid to women.

On the death of Crassus, the triumvirate was dissolved. Pompey and Cæsar were left to compete for the supremacy. Julia, the amiable daughter of Cæsar, whom he had given in marriage to Pompey, had proved a bond of union between these two ambitious spirits; but she was now dead, and Pompey married Cornelia,\* of the family of the Scipios, and the widow of the

\* According to Plutarch, Cornelia was beautiful, amiable, well versed in polite literature, played the lute, and was acquainted with geometry and philosophy. But the erudition of women among the Romans seems in many respects degraded. Their fathers or brothers, without consulting their affections, gave them in marriage, as it suited their own ambitious purposes. When Cæsar wished to be connected with Pompey, Julia, who was on the eve of marriage to another, must be given to him. Formerly when Sylla wished for the same connexion, he took his step daughter, Emilia, from her husband, and obliged the young Pompey to divorce his first wife Antistia, and marry her. Men divorced their wives at pleasure. Cæsar divorced his first wife Pompeia, declaring that though he had no proof of her guilt, yet, "Cæsar's wife must be above suspicion." Cato, who is regarded as a pattern of morality, divorced his second wife, Marcia, (if Plutarch may be credited,) on a singular whim of

son of Crassus. Animosities between them, fatal to the peace of Rome, were now beginning to appear. Cicero vainly attempted a reconciliation.

Pompey had enlisted the senate and the people on his side. Cæsar, on the other hand, was the idol of his veteran army.

**Civil dissensions.** Pompey obtained a decree from the senate, commanding Cæsar to disband his troops. Mark Antony, then a tribune, fled to Cæsar's camp with the news. To obey the mandate, would be to put himself in the power of his rival. To advance with his army, and pass the river Rubicon, would be setting the power of the senate and the laws of his country at defiance. He advanced with an

49. agitated mind, paused on the brink of the interdicted

**Cæsar passes the Rubicon.** stream, then dashed forward, and as he passed, he exclaimed "the die is cast." The celerity of his

movements surprised his enemies. Pompey, not being in force to meet him, fled from Rome, first to Capua, and afterwards to Brundisium. Cæsar, following him thither, crossed the Adriatic, with the army he had now collected, into Greece. Cæsar, by the departure of Pompey, was left in possession of Italy, and soon entered Rome. Collecting the members of the senate, he attempted to justify his conduct, and made proposals of peace with Pompey, while, at the same time, he continued his preparations for war. To facilitate these, he entered the treasury, and took from it an immense sum, telling the tribune who opposed him, and plead the violated rights of his country, that "arms and laws did not flourish together."

Appointing lieutenants over the different provinces, with legions at their command, and leaving Mark Antony commander-in-chief in

**Cæsar reduces Spain.** Italy, he proceeded in person to reduce Spain; where the army was in the interest of of Pompey.

Having, with great hazard, effected this, he returned to Rome, leaving one of his lieutenants to command in Spain.

The patriotic citizens of Rome knew not how to act. Cicero said, "Pompey has the better cause, but Cæsar is the abler man." Most of the senators, magistrates, and distinguished citizens, however, had followed the fortunes of Pompey. Cæsar assembled those which remained; and the prætor, Lepidus, against the will of the senators,

**Cæsar Dictator.** nominated Cæsar, dictator. This office he retained but eleven days, during which time he made some

improvements in the government, restoring it to order, and filling the vacant offices with his friends. Himself and one of his most zealous partizans, he procured to be appointed consuls.

Pompey, still in the east, had during the year been making vigorous preparations for war. Cæsar now prepared to

**Cæsar pursues Pompey.** follow him, and embarked from Brundisium with five legions, leaving the remainder of his troops to

follow. On reaching Epirus, he took several towns; but the arrival of his troops, and the danger of their being intercepted by Pompey's

his friend Hortensius, and gave her to him. Afterwards, however, on the death of Hortensius, he took her again to himself.

fleet, induced him again to make overtures for an accommodation. They were rejected, and Mark Antony soon arriving with his remaining troops, Cæsar sought to bring on an engagement. Pompey hesitated, but his officers were importunate; a council of war was called, and almost every voice declared for battle. Pompey's army far exceeded Cæsar's in number, and in his camp were almost all the friends

of Roman liberty,—Cicero, Cato, and his son-in-law, 48. the patriotic Brutus. The two armies were drawn Battle of Pharsalia. up on the memorable plain of Pharsalia. They who had sat together in council; they who had shared the same social repast; perchance, they who had drawn their infant sustenance from the same maternal bosom, now stood, with deadly weapons, to shed each other's blood. They joined the unholy strife, and the field was reddened with Roman blood, shed by Roman hands. Pompey fought his country's children, not as he had fought her foes, and Cæsar was victorious. As soon as Pompey perceived that his cavalry were defeated, he retired to his camp in despair, and sat down. When the whole army was routed, and he was informed that Cæsar was approaching to storm the intrenchments, he exclaimed "in my camp too," and laying aside the ensigns of office, he prepared for flight. It is said that Cæsar lost but 200 men, while 15,000 of Pompey's army fell, and 24,000 were taken prisoners.

Pompey flees. Pompey, a wretched fugitive, passed by Larissa, and in the vale of Tempe, he who could so lately command the attendance of suppliant thousands, prostrated himself to taste the running stream, and was glad to rest his wearied limbs in a fisherman's hut. In the morning he embarked on the Peneus in a small boat, but coming up with a ship of burden commanded by a Roman, he was welcomed and carried to Mitylene, where the affectionate Cornelia, expecting her husband as the master of the world, was told that if she wished to see Pompey with one ship, and that not his own, she must hasten. When she approached, he ran and caught her in his arms, as she was falling in a fainting fit. Yet it was her husband's fate, and not her own, that affected her, and she ingeniously sought to blame herself for his ill fortune.

With one small galley, they embarked for Egypt, to seek the protection of Ptolemy. On their arrival at Alexandria, the base counsellors of the young king advised him to assassinate Pompey, in order to obtain the favour of Cæsar. Accordingly, a boat was sent off to the galley, as if to take him on shore. Cornelia, looking after him as the boat moved onward, saw the assassin stab him through the body, and her shriek of agony was heard upon the shore.

Cæsar pursued Pompey to Egypt; but when his head was presented to him, he turned away with abhorrence of the bloody deed.

## SECTION V.

The crown of Egypt was at this time in dispute between Ptolemy, now the acknowledged king, and Cleopatra his sister. The claims of Ptolemy had been upheld by the Roman senate, and Cleopatra banished. She now determined to lay her claim before Cæsar. For that purpose, she hastened to Alexandria. Cæsar, captivated by her charms, espoused her cause, and summoned Ptolemy to appear before him; but at the instigation of his minister, he disregarded the summons, and despatched an army of 20,000 men to besiege Cæsar in Alexandria. Cæsar, attended by only 4,000 troops, was now in imminent danger. At length, reinforcements arrived, with whose aid he attacked and carried the camp of Ptolemy, who in attempting to escape was drowned; and Cæsar settled the crown upon Cleopatra. The war was closed, but the conqueror still lingered.

Cæsar espouses the cause of Cleopatra.

At length he was aroused by intelligence of the revolt and conquests of Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates. According to his own account, He "went, saw, conquered;" and having appointed Mithridates of Pergamus, who had succoured him in his distress at Alexandria, to be the successor of Pharnaces, he embarked for Italy.

Subdues Pharnaces.

He found on his arrival at Rome, that he had during his absence been created dictator for one year, consul for five years, and tribune of the people for life.

The remaining partizans of Pompey, after their defeat at Pharsalia, had returned to Africa, under Metellus Scipio, Cato, and Juba the son of Hiempsal, who was dutiful to the last, to the senate of Rome. A little body of them, to whom Cato gave laws, were now collected in Utica. Cæsar sought them, and defeated in battle their military force. Juba and one of his generals killed each other in despair. Scipio, who commanded the army, was slain; and Cato, the most virtuous and patriotic of the Romans, seeing that all hope was lost, having read and commented on Plato's work on the immortality of the soul, with philosophic composure committed suicide. Cæsar, on his return from this expedition, was honoured with a splendid triumph, which lasted four days; the people, with base flattery, hailing him as the father of his country.

Senate at Utica.

The sons of Pompey, yet unsubdued, held Spain, and were in a condition for war. Cæsar went thither, conquered, and returned. He had now triumphed over all his enemies, and was supreme in Rome.

His triumph, however, was not like those of Marius and Sylla. His government was mild, he was liberal to his friends, kind and forgiving to his enemies. He made salutary laws reforming the calendar, and showed the advantages of learning in conditions of power. He ordered Carthage and Corinth to be rebuilt, sent out Roman colonies to re-

Cæsar's administration.

people them, and planned a war with Parthia, in order to extend the empire, and to revenge the death of Crassus.

Had Cæsar been ambitious only, and not vain; had he been content with the substance of power, without the childish desire of its show, he might, probably, have lived, and been a blessing to his country. The constitution had long since been subverted and degenerate. Rome, without republican virtues, could not be a republic. It only remained to choose her master, and doubtless Cæsar was the fittest man. But Cæsar wished to be called king, and to wear the insignia of royalty.

This was galling to the pride of the Romans, and when Mark Antony and others crowned his statue, and spoke of his coronation, murmurs arose. The thoughtful  
 Conspiracy against Cæsar. Cassius, the envious Cinna, and others, were stirring up a hatred against him which aimed at his life; and at length they gained the man who, since Cato, had more devotion to his country than any other Roman. This was Marcus Brutus, who had fought against Cæsar at Pharsalia, been pardoned by him, loaded with favours, and adopted as a son. "Loving Cæsar much, he yet loved Rome more;" and by a misguided patriotism, he now joined the conspiracy, in which sixty senators were engaged.

The ides, or 15th day, of March, was the day appointed for the execution of the murderous deed. The night preceding, Calphurnia, the wife of Cæsar, was warned in a dream, and would fain have persuaded him not to go, that day, to the senate. Cæsar, as he passed a soothsayer who had foretold that the ides of March would be fatal to him, said triumphantly, "The ides of March are come." "But not gone," was the reply. On account of the alarm Calphurnia's dream had given him, he offered sacrifices before going to the senate. The omens were inauspicious, and he thought to have adjourned the senate; but one of the conspirators standing near, asked, "If he would bid them go, and come again, when Calphurnia had better dreams." He then took his accustomed seat. A friend came forward with a paper, which he desired him to read instantly. As he held it in his hand, the conspirators pressed around him with petitions. At length one gave the signal, by pulling his robe. At the moment, all drew

44.  
 Cæsar falls. their swords and fell upon him. He defended himself at first. But as he saw Brutus about to strike, he exclaimed, "And you too, my son," and wrapping his mantle about his head, fell, pierced with many wounds.

Thus died, in the 56th year of his age, a man, who, it is said, conquered three hundred nations, took eight hundred cities, and in different battles, defeated three millions of men, of whom one million were killed in fight. Great as he was, he was a man of blood, and in blood he fell.

## SECTION VI.

The conspirators retired to the capitol, to secure themselves from the indignation of Cæsar's friends. The following day, however, they appeared in public, and addressed the people, who seemed to listen with composure. The senate passed a decree, which, though it confirmed the acts of Cæsar's dictatorship, bestowed such offices upon the conspirators, as might be regarded an approval of their deed; but when Cæsar's will was read by the artful Mark Antony, and it was discovered that he had left to every Roman citizen a considerable legacy, the fury of the populace knew no bounds.

Brutus and Cassius went to Athens, where the Greeks, honouring them for their love of liberty, received them cordially. There they applied themselves to the study of philosophy.

Antony, meanwhile, had brought the senate into many of his measures. A new competitor for power had appeared  
 Octavius Cæsar. in Octavius, a nephew of Julius Cæsar, whom he had adopted as his son, giving him the name of Cæsar, and making him his heir. He had been pursuing his studies in Greece, but hearing of his uncle's death, he departed for Rome. Antony, though at the head of affairs, had neglected to pursue the conspirators, and now withheld from Octavius the fortune which his uncle had left him, that he might not have the means of acquiring popularity. Octavius, seeing his design, sold off his patrimonial estate, to pay Cæsar's legacy to the people. His next object was to gain the senate. Cicero looking upon him as less dangerous than Antony, aided him by his eloquence to effect his object. The senate sent to Antony, who was in Gaul at the head of an army, certain orders, which he thought proper to disregard; whereupon they despatched Octavius, with an army to reduce him to submission. An engagement took place in Cisalpine Gaul, in which Octavius was successful.

Lepidus. Lepidus, an unprincipled man, was the commander of an army in Farther Gaul. His office, rather than his talents, made him of consequence. To his camp, Antony fled. Manly and graceful in person—persuasive in speech and manners, Antony, the friend of Julius Cæsar, appeared among the soldiers in distress. The army preferring him to Lepidus, soon made him the actual commander.

Octavius had the command of the forces of the senate, but he had suspicions of the attachment of that body to himself, and thought the destruction of Antony would be but a prelude to his own. These suspicions were increased, when, on making application for the consulship, his suit was rejected. Octavius no longer hesitated upon his course. He privately sent to Antony and Lepidus, proposing terms of reconciliation. They gladly embracing his proposals, the three met on a little island in the Rhine, where they united their military force and leagued their power; forming the second triumvirate.

43.

The second Triumvirate under Octavius, Antony and Lepidus.

Their first business was to make a proscriptive list, in which each gave up many friends, in order that the others might agree to the destruction of his enemies. This bloody list contained the names of three hundred senators, and two hundred knights. Octavius gave up Cicero to the hatred of Antony. The estates of the proscribed were to be seized and given to their murderers.

The Proscription.

When the vengeance of the triumviri had been satisfied with blood, they prepared for war with Brutus and Cassius, who by this time had collected a considerable force. The Roman students at Athens had embraced their cause; the friends of the commonwealth, and the partizans of the son of Pompey, who were still scattered in various parts of the provinces, had flocked to their standard. Their united forces met at

War with Brutus  
and Cassius.

42.

Battle of Philippi.

Philippi, in Macedonia, and again the thousands of Rome stood arrayed against their brethren. The battle was fought with bravery. While Brutus proved victorious over Octavius, Antony completely routed the troops of Cassius, who, ignorant of the success of his colleague, and believing that all was lost, fell upon his sword. Brutus collected the forces of Cassius, and delayed a second engagement for twenty days, when, on the importunity of his troops, he resolved to hazard all in another battle. He was totally defeated. On witnessing the irreparable loss of his army, determined not to survive the slavery of his country, he also committed suicide.

On the death of Brutus, the party of the conspirators was no longer formidable; and the Roman empire was completely subjected to the conquerors. Octavius returned to Italy, where Lepidus still remained; while Antony went into Asia, receiving the homage of its various kings, collecting the revenues, and regulating the affairs of the provinces and tributary nations, as his caprice might dictate. At Tarsus, he was met by the fascinating Cleopatra, whom he had summoned to appear before him to answer for some suspected offence. Knowing that Antony affected at times to personify Bacchus, the god of wine, Cleopatra came to him in the character of Venus, sailing up the river Cydnus in a galley decorated with the perfection of art and elegance. Antony, at her invitation, came to her galley, and was charmed to his ruin. He accompanied her on her return to Alexandria, where sunk in effeminacy, he forgot public affairs.

Octavius was, meanwhile, assiduously employed in attaching his veteran troops to his person, and in bringing the whole nation to regard him as its head. Italy was, however, the scene of want and misery. Sextus Pompey infested the sea with his fleet, and prevented the importation of corn, while at the same time multitudes of women and children, by the appropriation of the lands to the soldiers, deprived of a home and of subsistence, crowded the temples and the streets. Multitudes of husbandmen and shepherds flocked to Rome, to excite the compassion of the conqueror. Among the suppliants,

Virgil.

Virgil, ~~Se40~~ alone found favour, and was permitted to retain his patrimonial estate.

In the meantime, Antony, aroused by the representations of his friends, tore himself from Egypt, and returned to Italy. Octavius met him, and by the mediation of friends, a reconciliation was effected. The noble Octavia, the sister of Octavius, was given as a wife to the lover of Cleopatra; and another division of the empire, made. Octavius took the command in the west; Antony, in the east; while to Lepidus, was assigned Africa; and to Sextus Pompey, who had now acquired considerable power, the islands of the Mediterranean, and the Peloponnessus. Difficulties between Antony and Pompey soon arose, which resulted in the destruction of the latter. Lepidus, thinking this a good opportunity of adding Sicily to his possessions, drew upon himself the indignation of Octavius, who by secret intrigues procured the desertion of his army, made him prisoner, deprived him of all authority, and banished him.

Antony, by the influence of the discreet Octavia, for three or four years, kept up terms with Octavius. He undertook the conduct of the war against the Parthians, at the head of 60,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. He pursued his march into Parthia, suffered defeats by his imprudence, and retraced his steps, after having lost one fourth of his army.

Influenced by his blind passion for Cleopatra, he hastened to Egypt, which again became the scene of his dissipation and folly. He bestowed on Cleopatra and her children several provinces; ordered Octavia, who was on her way to meet him, to return; and, in short, so far outraged the feelings of the Roman people that Octavius, now conscious of their support, declared

war. Antony's reluctance to abandon his effeminate life, caused him to be slow in his movements, while the industrious Octavius made vigorous preparations. A contest between these rivals was at length decided in a naval engagement near Actium, off the coast of Epirus.\*

Early in the action, sixty vessels under the command of Cleopatra, fled, and Antony immediately followed. The fleet was soon defeated, and after a few days, his land forces, which had been drawn up in sight of the fleet, surrendered without striking a blow.

Antony and Cleopatra repaired to Egypt, whither Octavius followed. Antony despairing of his fortunes, and deceived by a false report of the death of Cleopatra, committed suicide.

Octavius was desirous of conveying Cleopatra to Rome, to grace his triumph; but she prevented it, exposing herself to the bite of a venomous reptile, and thus terminated her existence. Egypt was from this time a Roman province.

Octavius had now obtained the summit of his desires. Every rival was removed, and the empire of the world, within his grasp. His return to Rome was signalized by a gorgeous triumph. The obsequious senate, whose vacancies he now filled with his own creatures, no

\* In honour of his victory, the conqueror afterwards built, on the site of Actium, the city of Nicopolis.



longer laid claim to independence ; and Rome henceforth became a monarchy. With the recent fate of Julius Cæsar before him, he could not but be aware of the dangers with which he was surrounded. He wisely avoided the vain show of power, and sought to cover his usurpation by some name acceptable to the people ; at first calling his office the *tribunate*. This office he received for ten years, after

Roman Empire under Augustus, begins.

which it was renewed, and at length he took the titles of Augustus and Empéror. He assiduously courted the favour of the populace, continued to all the magistrates their old titles and offices, although the effective power of every office centered in himself. Aided by the counsels of his wise minister, Mæcenas, he became the patron of arts and letters, and the framer of salutary laws.

The Roman Empire now embraced the best parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Its revenues were immense. A great army was now kept on foot, and distributed in different provinces. The prætorian and city cohorts,\* consisting of 10,000 men, formed a guard for the Emperor, to whose title, the senate now added that of " Father of his country." The king of Parthia sent to him the spoils of the army of Crassus, and the kings of India sought his friendship. The Spanish nation being now, for the first time, completely subdued, an insurrection of the German tribes having been quelled, the temple of Janus,

Universal Peace.

which was shut only in profound peace, and which had remained continually open since the reign of Numa Pompilius, was closed.

\* A cohort is a body of infantry consisting of five or six hundred men. The prætorian guards afterwards acquired great power and are frequently mentioned in history.



# MIDDLE HISTORY.

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## PERIOD I.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

CHRISTIAN ERA, 1 A. D.

TO THE



Theodosius and his sons.

The division { FIRST EPOCH, 395 A. D. } of the Roman Empire.

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## CHAPTER I.

### THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

#### SECTION I.

THE whole civilized world, being now included in one vast empire, "the fullness of time" arrived, when the Saviour of mankind made his advent upon earth. His birth is supposed to have occurred four years before the common era. The Roman empire, after ages of war and bloodshed, was fully established, and in profound tranquillity, when "the desire of nations," the "Prince of peace," was born.

The treasures of the world poured into Rome; and stately monuments, splendid buildings, literature and the fine arts, all marked an age of luxury and wealth. Condition of the Roman Empire. But the liberty of the people had become extinct. The spirit of the republican institutions had departed, and a military despotism had usurped its place. Here and there, perhaps, a spark of the old Roman spirit might kindle in the breast of the patriot, but it was soon smothered. The memory of the aged carried them back to the scenes of horror which marked the days of Marius and Sylla, while they knew nothing of freedom but by the tradition of their fathers. The young turned with disgust from the prospect of a renewal of the civil wars; and welcomed peace and quiet, though purchased by the surrender of the sovereign power into the hands of one individual.

Augustus continued to exercise the imperial power, fourteen years after the birth of Christ. His policy inclined him to peaceful measures; and the last years of his reign were not marked by any military event of consequence. His aim was to establish his authority more firmly, and secure the succession in his family. He associated with him in the government, Marcellus, the son of his excellent sister, Octavia, by her first marriage, to whom he gave for a wife, Julia, his only child. Marcellus dying, Julia was bestowed on Agrippa, a renowned son-in-law of Octavia, who was also associated in the government with Augustus.

Julia, while she was the wife of Agrippa, became the mother of five children, two sons, and three daughters. She was a profligate woman, and Augustus was at length obliged to banish her from his court, and she died a miserable outcast.\* He had married Livia, already the mother of two sons, Tiberius, and Drusus Germanicus. Livia was unprincipled, artful and intriguing. Having great influence over Augustus, she secretly sought to elevate her own sons above his family relatives. Augustus associated Tiberius, the oldest, with himself, in the administration of the empire, but required him to adopt Germanicus, the son of his late brother Drusus. These things being done, Augustus died in the deep secrecy of the palace. The manner and exact time of his death are unknown; the circumstances were, however, such as gave rise to suspicions that he was poisoned by Livia.

Tiberius, who, at the death of Augustus, was in possession of the imperial power, though an able general, was a hypocritical, sensual and cruel tyrant. Yet at first he dissembled, and appeared to govern with moderation. But the mask soon dropped.

The fame of Germanicus, who at the death of Augustus, commanded in Gaul, excited his jealousy. He was recalled, and transferred to the command of Syria, where his death occurred shortly after. The multitude regarded Tiberius and his mother as its authors.

\* The profligacy of the female character in Rome, at this period, may be reckoned as one cause of her downfall. Augustus, in the conduct of his daughter, was justly punished for his own crime. Becoming enamoured of Livia, the wife of another man, he divorced Scribonia, the mother of Julia, and immediately married her.

Livia enjoyed but little the elevation of her favourite son. He was jealous of her power, dreaded her genius, and treated her with neglect. When she died, he denied her funeral honours. But bad as she was, she was so much less depraved than her son, that while she lived, she held in check his abominable vices, to which, after her death, he gave uncontrolled indulgence.

He held his court in the island of Capræa; but in the midst of brutish sensuality and continual intoxication, he kept, as it were, a demoniac eye on the affairs of Rome; knew every thing which passed; detected every conspiracy; and while the companions of his vices were quaffing with him the cup of intoxication, he, perhaps, was plotting with impenetrable dissimulation to destroy them.

With Tiberius, conspicuous virtue was ever a mark for vengeance. Fearing the friends of those he destroyed, he removed them also. Even the mother's mourning for her slaughtered son, was in his eyes a crime deserving death. The obsequious senate were ever ready to sanction his acts, and offered the incense of perpetual flattery to the man who filled the streets of Rome with blood. Scarce a family could be found, some of whom he had not destroyed. Thus he reigned twenty-three years.

Tiberius had adopted Caligula, the son of the virtuous Germanicus, but not the heir of his virtues. Tiberius saw in him a cruel disposition, and said he raised "a serpent for Rome, and a Phæton to burn the rest of the world." Caligula, eager to obtain the imperial dignity, was declared emperor, while Tiberius was supposed to be in the agonies of death. But the tyrant opening his eyes, the party of Caligula threw the bed-clothes over his head, and stifled the reviving spark of existence.

33. It was under the administration of Tiberius that our Lord crucified. Lord Jesus Christ was crucified in Judæa.

37.  
Caligula.

41.  
Claudius.

Caligula wished that "the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a blow." His conduct accorded with the disposition here expressed. After a reign of nearly five years he was murdered, and the stupid Claudius, the brother of Germanicus was raised by the prætorian cohorts to the imperial throne.

During these reigns, although vice pervaded the capital, there were able generals abroad, and victory still crowned the arms of the legions, in their foreign contests. During the reign of Claudius, successful wars were maintained with the Parthians and Britons. Claudius died a violent death.

Nero, whose name is associated with all that is base and cruel, was raised to the empire. On his first accession, he revived the hopes of the people, by giving promise of a just and peaceful reign; but the illusion was soon dissipated, and the murder of his tutor, the philosopher Seneca, of

54.  
Nero.

his brother, his mother, and his wife, displayed the relentless tyranny of his character. He gave loose to the most licentious indulgence of his passions; subserviency to his pleasures proved the only passport to his favour. Professing himself a patron of the fine arts, he aspired to the character of a poet, and degraded the dignity of the empire by appearing as a public actor on the stage. The discovery of repeated conspiracies, increased his maliciousness and jealousy. The city presented a scene of blood; and funerals darkened the streets.

The Christians, who had now become numerous in Rome, were the peculiar objects of his hatred. To facilitate their destruction, he caused Rome to be set on fire, charged the crime upon them, and devised means for their punishment. While the city was burning, he was engaged in revelry and dancing.

This monarch decorated his person, sung, and played his lyre, and was quite the leading coxcomb of his time. He corrupted the high born youth of Rome and made them companions of his revels. Flatterers and sycophants thronged around him; and he was pleased, when they told him that he was the greatest of poets, and that his voice was "divine melody."

The discovery of a design which he had formed for destroying the senate, and again setting fire to the city, produced a general revolt. He fled from the capital to a villa owned by one of his favourites, where finding that the army had already proclaimed a new emperor, he put an end to his life.

The two years succeeding the death of Nero, the whole Roman Empire presented a scene of discord and commotion. All seemed falling into anarchy and confusion. The soldiers had now learned their power; nor could the senate do more than assent to their decisions. In those two years, four generals were successively raised to the sovereignty by their respective armies; and three of them displaced and murdered.

Galba was commander of the military forces in Spain, when he was proclaimed emperor by the united voice of the senate, and of his legions. A promised donation to the prætorian cohorts, also secured their concurrence. Galba came to the throne, at the age of seventy-three. Although not addicted to the vices of his predecessor, he was parsimonious and cruel. By withholding the promised donation, and attempting to enforce rigid discipline, he alienated the prætorians, who soon proclaimed Otho emperor. The guards entered the city, a bloody tumult succeeded, in which Galba and his friends were murdered, and Otho elevated to the throne.

While these events were transpiring in Rome, a powerful competition for imperial honours had arisen in the north. Vitellius, to whom Galba had committed the command of the German legions, was already proclaimed emperor, and marching towards the capital. His forces encountered those of Otho,

64.

First persecution of the Christians.

66.

Galba.

69.

Otho.

Vitellius.

in a battle which terminated in the defeat of the latter. Otho, when informed of the victory of his rival, committed suicide. Vitellius entered Rome as a conqueror. A horrible scene of carnage and vice succeeded.

Meanwhile, the east declared for Vespasian, who commanded the legions in Judæa. Syria, Egypt, and Illyricum espoused his interest. Civil war again distracted the empire. Vespasian was finally raised to the imperial throne. Vitellius was murdered, and sickening scenes of destruction were reacted in the city.

70.

Vespasian.

The establishment of Vespasian on the throne, however, proved the commencement of a new order of things. His authority was recognized by the senate, and after the first violences, consequent upon the admission of an exasperated and victorious army within the city, peace and order were restored. Vespasian directed his earliest efforts to the regulation of the finances, the enforcement of discipline in the army, and the subjection of rebellious provinces. Some of the Germans and Gauls had united in an attempt to throw off the Roman yoke, and the success of their arms spread the terror of their name even to Rome itself. The generals of Vespasian were at length victorious, and reduced the Germans to submission.

A war with the Jews was urged during this reign, which, though perhaps less dangerous to the empire, possesses a deeper interest with us, from its relation to a people from whom we have received our religion, and whose history now forms a living proof of the truth of sacred prophecy.

War with the Jews.

### SECTION III.

Judæa, from the period in which it was reduced to subjection by Pompey, can be considered as little less than a Roman province. Under Julius Cæsar, the bondage was but little felt, but on his death the commotions which agitated the Roman Empire extended to this country, which was torn by intestine disorders. Mark Antony established upon the throne, Herod surnamed the Great, a cruel and profligate, but crafty and politic prince. The sceptre was thus departing from Judah—an event marked by prophecy as contemporary with the birth of the Messiah. Herod was king of

Herod.

Judæa at the commencement of the Christian era, and by his orders the infants of Bethlehem were massacred. On the downfall of Mark Antony, he paid successful court to Augustus, and remained in possession of Judæa until his death, when his son Archelaus reigned in his stead.

No disturbance arose in the province until Caligula attempted to place his statue in the Jewish Temple, when the Jews at once resorted to arms to prevent the desecration of their sanctuary. The death of Caligula, by removing the cause, put an end to the insurrection.

The spirit of the Jews, however, could ill brook subjection to a foreign power. The cruelty, avarice, and insatiable rapacity of Ges-

sus Glorus, the governor of Judæa, under Nero, drove them to open revolt. The succeeding disorders of the empire had prevented the entire suppression of this rebellion, although Vespasian who before his elevation to the throne, commanded the Syrian legions, had obtained repeated victories, and made himself master of all their strong holds and fortresses, except Jerusalem.

His son, Titus, who was now left to conduct the war in Judæa, prepared for the reduction of this city. The siege was commenced at the season of the Passover, when the Jews, from every nation, were gathered within Jerusalem.

70.

Titus besieges Jerusalem.

The city was divided into three factions, fired with the most rancorous hatred of each other; not even with the Roman army before the gates, did the fury of their contentions abate, or their outrages and murders become less frequent. Every part of the city was filled with pollution and massacre. The religious ceremonies, indeed were not suspended, but even in the temple, the blood of the citizens mingled with that of the sacrifices. Thus "the abomination of desolation" stood in the high place, and called down the vengeance of a righteous God. War without, deadly feud, and starving famine within, caused a scene of "tribulation such as was not since the beginning of the world, no, nor ever shall be."

Titus made the Jews repeated offers of pardon and protection, on condition of surrender, but they resisted with inflexible obstinacy. Tacitus, the Roman historian, remarks, "that they were misled by an ancient prophecy, which foretold, that in this very juncture the power of the east would prevail over the nations, and a race of men would go forth from Judæa, to extend their dominion over the rest of the world."

The Christians, when they saw "Jerusalem encompassed with armies, and a trench cast round about her," remembered the prophetic words of their Lord, and fled to the mountains.

Titus, finding the siege would be of long continuance, stormed the city. The Jews fought with the most determined bravery. In the first assault, the Roman arms obtained no advantage. In the second, which continued three days without intermission, a part of the walls were levelled, and a portion of the city taken. The Jews, driven from one part, retreated to another, and still maintained the fight. At length the temple alone remained. Titus resolved to save this, but the sentence of its destruction had been pronounced by a higher Power. The Jews crowded into it; and thither the Romans carried the assault. In the dreadful uproar which succeeded, a soldier threw a lighted torch, upon some part of the wood work, which soon communicated to the other parts, enveloped the whole in flames, and of that beautiful and venerable fabric, "not one stone was left upon another."

\* "Not understanding," observes the historian, that "this referred to Vespasian and his son Titus." Tacitus, equally blind with the Jews, did not himself understand that this race of men were to be the heralds of a peaceful religion, which was destined, in the fullness of time, to spread its heavenly dominion over the whole earth.



Josephus, the Jewish historian, estimates the number which perished during the siege, at eleven hundred thousand. The Jews no longer held the rank of a nation. Judæa was entirely subjected to the Roman power. Its ill-fated inhabitants have, for seventeen hundred years, been scattered over the face of the earth, without ever amalgamating with the various nations, with whom they make their residence; thus constituting one of the strongest proofs of the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures.

Vespasian reigned ten years; most of which were passed in tranquillity. He was the first Roman emperor who had died without violence, unless we except Augustus.

#### SECTION IV.

Titus, whose name signifies the "delight of mankind," succeeded his father and sustained the character of a virtuous

79.

Titus.

and beneficent prince. He is one of the rare instances, in which elevation in rank produces im-

provement in virtue. His efforts were directed to the improvement of his people. The zeal with which he engaged in noble undertakings, may be learned from the regret which he expressed, when on reviewing the events of a day, and finding no good deeds performed, he exclaimed, "O my friends, I have lost a day." His reign of two years, although marked by several disastrous events, was prosperous in all that depended upon himself.

The great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which desolated a considerable

Herculeum and  
Pompeii destroyed.

portion of the country, and buried in ruins, Herculeum, Pompeii, and Stabiae, occurred at this time.

A fire broke out in Rome, which for three days raged with fury,

Fire and Pestilence  
at Rome.

and destroyed a great portion of the city. To add to the afflictions of the people, a pestilence spread its ravages. In its most destructive period, it swept

from Rome ten thousand persons in a day. The kindness and compassion of Titus, who even declared himself ready to repair from his treasures the whole loss by fire, did much to alleviate the distress of the people.

Domitian, brother of Titus, succeeded him. He was cruel, frivolous and vain. He caused himself to be styled God

81.

Domitian.

and Lord. He once assembled the senate to debate on the question, in what utensil it was best that a

certain fish should be dressed. He once, in mockery, invited the senate to a feast. When arrived at the palace, they were conducted to a gloomy hall, lighted by dim tapers, hung with black, and provided with coffins, on which the guests saw their own names inscribed. Soldiers with drawn swords came in upon them and threatened their lives. After this, which the emperor esteemed a good joke, he let them depart.

His chief amusement was catching flies, at which he was very ex-

pert. Fifteen years, the Romans submitted to such degradation, when Domitian fell a victim to a conspiracy conducted by his wife, and the commander of the prætorian guards.

His reign is memorable as the period in which his general, the wise and virtuous Agricola, (whose life his son-in-law, Tacitus, has so ably written,) completed the conquest of Britain, as far as the friths of Scotland. His reign is also remarkable for a successful irruption of the barbarians of the north, upon the frontiers of the empire. A legion was destroyed by the Dacians and other barbarians united with them. Domitian himself marched at the head of his troops, to avenge the death of their comrades, and was compelled to purchase peace, by a tribute.

Nerva, at the age of seventy, succeeded Domitian. He is renowned for his amiable and benevolent character.

96. Finding the weight of the empire too great for his advanced age, he associated Trajan in the government, and designated him as his successor.

The character of Trajan is one which historians unite in applauding. Although a military prince, and a conqueror, he governed with moderation and equity, and so established himself in the affections of his subjects, that it was customary in succeeding times, on the elevation of an emperor, to wish him the felicity of Augustus, and the virtue of Trajan. His military achievements restored the lustre of the Roman arms. The ignominious tribute paid by Domitian to the Dacians ceased, and Dacia was reduced to a Roman province. The interference of the Parthians in the affairs of Armenia, which was under Roman protection, afforded Trajan an opportunity of displaying his arms in the east. At the head of his legions, he crossed the Euphrates, and Tigris, reduced Mesopotamia to a Roman province, marched through tracts of country where the Roman arms had never before been known, and penetrated even to India. On his return, he established a king upon the Parthian throne, and appointed lieutenants in various provinces. At Seleucia, a sudden illness terminated his life.

Trajan, with no better guide than could be derived from heathen philosophy, was a great, humane, wise and virtuous monarch. His character might put to the blush many a Christian prince. Yet the imperfections of his principles may be discovered in his ardent aspirations for military glory, while his persecution of the Christians leaves a blot upon his otherwise untarnished fame. Historians have censured his policy in comparison with that of Augustus, who wisely considered the danger of extending the empire, and prudently resolved to abandon the idea of further conquests.

#### SECTION V.

Hadrian the succeeding emperor, returned to the pacific policy of Augustus, and with the exception of Dacia he even relinquished the conquests of his predecessor. This, and the two succeeding reigns, have been pronounced

117.  
Hadrian.

the happiest days of the Roman empire. The laws of Hadrian were salutary, and his administration excellent. He secured the future prosperity of the nation by appointing Titus Antoninus his successor.

When, on the death of Hadrian, Titus Antoninus, (afterwards for his filial devotion surnamed Pius,) ascended the throne, he found the various departments of government, moving on in regularity and order, and the whole empire in prosperity and peace. His reign of twenty-three years flowed on in the same calm and happy course. Averse to war, the circumstances of the state permitted him to indulge his love of peace; while his renown for justice and wisdom procured the admiration of barbarians, who in their differences resorted to him as an arbiter. In his reign the persecutions of the Christians ceased, and all classes of his subjects could repose in the justice of their sovereign. His private, as well as his public character, was unblemished, and the name of Antoninus Pius will ever stand pre-eminent for virtue, in the annals of princes.

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, who succeeded Titus in the imperial government, by his attachment to science and philosophy, has acquired the name of the Philosopher. The situation of the empire, however, did not permit Aurelius to indulge in his favourite pursuits; or pass his days in contemplative retirement. The camp required his presence; the peace of the empire was now disturbed in its various borders. While in Asia, the Parthians rebelled against the sovereignty of Rome, on the Rhine and the Danube the barbarians were already in arms. The lieutenants of Aurelius were despatched against the Parthians; the emperor himself conducted the war against the barbarous hordes of the north. The Parthians were defeated, and many of their cities taken. The war in the east reflected new lustre upon the Roman arms. That with the barbarians of the north, was more formidable. After many campaigns, Aurelius fell a victim to its hardships.

With the reign of Aurelius, the prosperity of the empire ceased; and from the accession of his son Commodus, may be dated its decline. A more striking contrast never was presented, than in the characters of the father and son. In vain had Aurelius gathered around him the wise and the virtuous of the age, to conduct the education of the youth. Imbecility of mind marked the character of Commodus, and rendered all means of instruction useless. Despite of the advice of the sage counsellors of his father, Commodus purchased a peace with the barbarians, that he might return to the voluptuous pleasures of Rome. Abandoning himself to the influence of the most worthless favourites, the reigns of government were loosened; scenes not witnessed since the days of Domitian, were enacted in the capital. Outraging all the honourable feelings of the Romans, Commodus signalized himself as a

gladiator.\* His reign, of thirteen years, was terminated by his assassination.

The conspirators raised Pertinax, prefect of the city, to the imperial throne. The prætorian guards murmured at the elevation of a man of whose virtue they were assured, and who, educated in the school of Aurelius, was little likely to yield to their disorderly demands, or shower upon them the profuse liberality of Commodus. His attempt to reform the financial system, increased their hatred, and in less than three months from the time they swore allegiance, a sedition broke out in the camp. Two or three hundred of the guards rushed in arms to the palace, where Pertinax, securely relying on his innocence, and their oath, was inhumanly murdered. A most disgraceful scene succeeded. Returning to the camp, with the head of Pertinax, borne as a trophy, the guards now offered the Roman world to the highest bidder.

The wealth of Didius Julianus, a vain and voluptuous senator, enabled him to meet the demands of the rapacious prætorians, who immediately completed the contract, proclaimed him emperor, took the oath of allegiance, escorted him to the palace, and surrounded him with the ensigns of imperial dignity. The obsequious senate, though attached to Pertinax, yielded to the occasion, and ratified the election of the prætorians. The legions of Britain, of Illyricum, and Syria, rebelling against the assumed authority of the prætorians, resolved to avenge the death of Pertinax, and each proclaimed its respective general worthy of the empire. Severus, who commanded in Illyricum, at the head of his hardy and disciplined forces, accustomed to contests with the warlike barbarians of the north, advanced towards Rome. By his contiguity to Italy, and the celerity of his movements, Severus anticipated his rivals, and in sixty-six days from the elevation of Julianus, without having drawn a sword, he was proclaimed emperor at Rome. The prætorians abandoned the victim of their venality, the senate deposed him, and he was executed like a common criminal.

## SECTION VI.

Four years of civil war succeeded, during which, Severus triumphed over his rivals, and secured his throne. His reign was rigorous. His first act, on reaching the capitol, was to degrade and banish the prætorians, who had been engaged in selling the empire. A war with the Caledonians, which he superintended in person, occupied him in his latter years. He died in Britain, before the termination of the war.

His sons, Caracalla and Geta, then in Britain, were declared his successors. The beginning of their career was unpromising; mutual jealousy and hatred were manifested, on their journey from Britain to Rome; they

\* The gladiators were persons who fought in public, for the amusement of the people.

neither ate at the same table, nor slept in the same house. Caracalla at length, by the murder of his brother, obtained sole possession of the throne. His reign was stigmatized with deeds of blood, and with the exception of the citizenship granted to all the provinces, presents no event worthy of record. Caracalla extended the Roman citizenship, with a view to procure more ample means for his extravagant expenditures. The tribute received from the provinces, which Gibbon estimates at a sum equal to about one hundred millions of dollars, was represented by Augustus, as not sufficient for the purposes of government, and he artfully contrived to make the Roman citizens submit to taxation by impost. Succeeding emperors had increased their burdens, and Caracalla extended the right of citizenship, in order to impose on the foreign provinces the taxation of the citizen, while he failed to relieve them from the tribute of the stranger. They felt the double burden, and their discontent was one of the causes of the decline of the empire. Caracalla was assassinated in Syria, by the in-

Macrinus.

stigation of Macrinus, prætorian prefect. Macrinus was raised to the throne, but shortly deposed, and Heliogabalus, a reputed son of Caracalla, was invested with the sovereignty.

Heliogabalus was a monster of vice. His short reign of four years was a reign of infamy. His violent death, the mer-

218.  
Heliogabalus.

ited punishment of his crimes, again left the imperial throne at the disposal of the army, and Alexander Severus, the cousin of Heliogabalus, was now invested with the imperial purple.

The reign of this amiable, just, and humane prince, is like a ray of light amidst surrounding darkness. Inheriting

222.  
Alexander Severus. from nature a happy disposition, and a superior intellect, and educated by a careful mother in the best precepts of the heathen philosophy, he was, amidst the corrupting influences of regal authority, an example of industry, sobriety, and regularity of life, an elegant scholar, an affectionate son, a wise statesman, and an able general. He restored the senate to many of their rights, reduced the tribute of the provinces, and sought to enforce discipline in the army. But the military had discovered their own power, and their vices were too strong for his curbing hand. Ulpian, the wisest and most beloved of his counsellors, had incurred the hatred of the guards, for seeking to bring them to order. They sought his life, and pursued him to the presence of the Emperor. Alexander commanded, entreated, and covered his friend with his purple robe, but the audacious murderers stabbed him through it.

That Alexander was not timid, appears from the dignity and spirit with which he suppressed an insurrection of his soldiers, in the course of the Persian war, while he lay at Antioch. Appearing in the midst of the infuriated soldiery, "Be silent" said he, "in the presence of your sovereign. Be silent, and reserve your shouts for the enemy, or I will no longer allow you to be soldiers." They brandished their swords, and rushed towards him. "Keep your courage," said he, "for the field of battle; me you may destroy, but you cannot in-

timidate." They persisted in their dangerous demands, and again he spoke, "CITIZENS, no longer soldiers, lay down your arms, depart to your respective habitations." The boisterous elements of sedition sunk into grief and shame, and the soldiers obeyed. After a time he restored their arms, and this legion ever after were devoted to his interest.

The Roman arms were employed, during this reign, in a war with Persia. This ancient monarchy at this period, had revived, and a new dynasty had been established by Artaxerxes, a person of ignoble birth, but possessed of great abilities. Repeated and long continued wars with the Romans, had weakened the Parthian power. Of this Artaxerxes availed himself, to produce a general revolt of the Persians. A bloody battle ensued, in which Artabanus, the Parthian king, was defeated, and the Persians restored to the sovereignty of the east. Claiming all Lesser Asia as the successor of Cyrus, the Persian monarch came into collision with the Roman empire. The event of the war with Alexander Severus, seems somewhat doubtful; it was at least so far unsuccessful to the Romans, that Artaxerxes retained the countries which he had conquered.

Hardly had Alexander returned from the Persian war, before he was compelled to encounter the Germans. In his camp on the banks of the Rhine, this interesting prince, too good for the age in which he lived, fell a victim to another mutiny of the soldiers, fomented by an ambitious aspirant to the throne.

## SECTION VII.

Maximinus, the successor of Alexander Severus, was born in Thrace, on the confines of the Roman empire, but his father was a Goth, and his mother an Alan.

235.

Maximinus.

About thirty-two years before this period, the emperor Severus, halting his army in Thrace, to celebrate games at wrestling, the young barbarian, Maximinus, of the gigantic height of eight feet, and of size and strength in proportion, presented himself, and in a rude dialect entreated to be admitted as a competitor. The emperor noticed his prodigious exploits, and permitted him to enlist as a common soldier. From thence he rose by degrees, till he attained a high command in the army. But he was without gratitude or mercy, and had nothing but brute force to recommend him. He persuaded the soldiers that Alexander was effeminate. They slew him, and proclaimed the barbarian emperor.—Suspicious of contempt from the well born and learned, he hated and destroyed them.—The senate refused to sanction the nomination of the army; and though Maximinus continued the German war with success, his cruelties created disaffection, which, when he made the taxes of the provinces intolerable, broke into revolt.

In Africa, the proconsul, Gordian, a man of eminent virtue, was, together with his son, proclaimed emperor ; and the election was ratified by the senate. The governor of Mauritania espoused the cause of Maximinus, attacked and defeated the Gordians, who both perished in battle. The senate, desperate on hearing the death of the Gordians, nominated two of their number, Maximus and Balbinus.

The news of these proceedings roused Maximinus to fury. At the head of his legions, and breathing vengeance on his foes, he advanced upon Italy ; but here he found a waste and desolated country. By the care of the senate, all provision and forage, and all the inhabitants, were removed. He laid siege to Aquileia. His army, suffering from fatigue and famine, became mutinous ; a conspiracy was formed, and the barbarian was slain in his tent.

The virtuous reign of Maximus and Balbinus was short and insecure. The nation indeed rejoiced in the destruction of Maximinus ; they undertook reformation, but the real sovereign of the Roman empire, the prætorian guards, were refractory, and declared they would not acquiesce in any choice made by the senate. They slew Maximus and Balbinus, and proclaimed the young Gordian, a descendant of one of those who fell in Africa, emperor.

In the east, the Persians continued to encroach upon the empire, and had already invaded Mesopotamia. Gordian marched against them, and had compelled them to retreat from the Tigris, when his sudden death checked the progress of the Roman arms.

Philip, an artful Arabian, who by his abilities had risen to be prefect of Rome, suspected of having been accessory to the death of Gordian, his benefactor, was immediately proclaimed emperor by the army. The Pannonian legions revolted, and invested their general, Decius, with the purple. The rival emperors met in battle at Verona, where victory declared for Decius ; and Philip, after a reign of five years, lost his crown, and his life.

The Goths, supposed to come from the Scandinavian region, now, for the first time, poured down upon the empire. Crossing the Danube, they entered Thrace, and spread devastation and ruin on all sides. Decius marched against them, and after a reign of two years, this monarch, worthy of better times, perished in battle.

Gallus, his general, was made emperor. He purchased with money a peace of the barbarians, that he might return to the luxuries of the palace, thus revealing the weakness and the wealth of the empire ; and taking the surest course to incite other invasions. Nor did the hardy and rapacious barbarians linger long. The Goths and other hordes made attacks on the north, and Persia menaced Syria, and the other provinces in the east.

*Æmilianus*, one of the generals of Gallus, routed the Goths and pursued them beyond the Danube. His praise was every where heard, while Gallus was despised.

253.

*Æmilianus.*

So strong is ambition in the human heart, he coveted the imperial purple, stained as it was with the blood of so many emperors, and worn but as a prelude to assassination. His troops proclaimed him emperor. He met the army of Gallus at Spoleto. The soldiers of Gallus mutinied, murdered their emperor, and confirmed the succession of *Æmilianus*.

Valerian, who in the reign of Decius had been appointed censor by the senate, and had faithfully executed many offices of trust, now, at the age of sixty, appeared at the head of an army of superior strength, a competitor for the regal power. The soldiers of *Æmilianus*, after he had reigned four months, despatched him, to make way for his more powerful rival.

Valerian stood high with all classes ; but age had impaired the energy of his mind, or the people had been deceived in his character, for his reign did not equal their expectations. With the blindness of parental affection, he associated with him in the government, his son, Gallienus, whose character rendered him wholly unfit for the station. Possessing genius without judgment, he was excellent in poetry, oratory, cookery, and gardening, but contemptible in war and government. The empire was attacked on all sides. The Franks, the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Persians, hovered on the different frontiers, and threatened it with destruction ; while Gallienus amused himself in Rome, held mock triumphs, and smiled, and made witty speeches when he heard the news of his disasters.

254.

*Valerian.*

The Franks, from whom are descended the modern French, are supposed to have been a confederacy of some of the tribes inhabiting the country of the Lower Rhine and the Weser. They had always defied the Roman arms. Passionately loving liberty, they took the expressive name of Franks or Freemen. Their valour had long exercised the military skill of the Roman legions, and they now spread terror and consternation through the provinces of Gaul and Spain. They passed over into Africa, and threatened the province of Mauritania.

## SECTION VIII.

The Alemanni, whose name, it is said, signified all-men, and expressed their great numbers, were a warlike race of Germans. They crossed the Danube, passed the Rhætian Alps into the plains of Lombardy, advanced to Ravenna, and alarmed the capital.

*The Franks.*

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*The Alemanni.*

Gallienus sent his lieutenants against the Franks, but remained in Milan to amuse himself there, whilst on the senate devolved the task of providing for the defence of Italy from its formidable enemies.



Sapor, the son of Artaxerxes, was on the throne of Persia. He had compelled the Armenians in alliance with Rome, to submit to his power, and had now advanced upon the Roman provinces. Valerian, marching to oppose him, intimidated the Goths, who were in possession of the Euxine, in Asia Minor, and for a time they withdrew. The emperor then passed the Euphrates, and was betrayed into a situation near Edessa, where his army was surrounded by that of the Persian monarch. Affecting to consent to a parley, Sapor made him prisoner. He was the first Roman emperor who suffered that disgrace. His army surrendered, and the haughty Persian spared him no indignities, mocking him and treading on his neck; at length the aged emperor sunk beneath his fate and died, while Sapor spread the terrour of his arms through Syria and Cilicia.

Neither the death of his father, nor the distress of the empire, interrupted the amusements of Gallienus. The news, however, of the disaffection of his people, sometimes roused him to direful revenge. In one instance, he commanded the governor of a province to exterminate all the males. Usurpers, encouraged by the discontents of the people, started up in every direction. A fancied resemblance between this period, and that of the Athenian tyrants, gave rise to the assertion, that there were thirty claimants in Rome for the imperial purple. Nineteen only can be traced, and all these died by violent means. Gallienus, at length, fell.

At this deplorable crisis, the Roman empire seemed lying in hopeless ruin. The civil wars caused by the several usurpations, the contests with the barbarians, and their devastations, together with famine and pestilence, had swept from the face of the empire one half its inhabitants. But, from the course of history, we may infer, that the pride of the Romans had been humbled, and that virtue, so often the child of adversity, had in some degree revived among them.

In Claudius, whom the conspirators of Gallienus had placed upon the throne, Rome once more possessed a sovereign suited to her wants. His first efforts were directed to restore order in the army, and prepare for the expulsion of the barbarian invaders. In his reign of two years, he defeated the Alemanni, and obtained so great victory over the Goths, who had passed over into Greece, as to obtain the appellation of the Gothic Claudius. He died of the plague, and was succeeded by the energetic Aurelian, one of his generals.

The barbarians, though repulsed by Claudius, were ready to resume their depredations. The provinces of Britain, Gaul, and Spain, were in a state of revolt; and Syria, Egypt, and Asia Minor, acknowledged the sway of Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra. She was the widow of Odenatus, a general who had humbled the pride of the haughty Sapor.

Aurelian restored discipline to the Roman army, obtained some advantages over the Goths, entered into a treaty, by which he guaranteed them a safe retreat into their own country, on condition of their

furnishing the Romans with a body of two thousand auxiliaries consisting of cavalry. Finding it difficult to defend so extensive a frontier, he withdrew the Roman forces from the ancient Dacia, removing the greater part of the Dacians to the southern side of the Danube ; thus adding strength and numbers to that province, which now received the name of Dacia. A part of the inhabitants of the old province, however, chose rather to remain in subjection to the Goths.

While Aurelian was thus engaged, the Alemanni made an irruption into Italy, and extended their devastations from the Danube to the Po. Aurelian hastened to meet them, and after three battles, at length drove them from Italy. He next quelled an insurrection headed by Tetricus, who held command over Gaul, Spain, and Britain. In a bloody battle, fought near Chalons, in Champagne, Aurelian was victorious. The whole empire, with the exception of those provinces which owned the sway of Zenobia, now acknowledged him as its sovereign.

### SECTION IX.

Of the early history of Palmyra, whose ruins afford the modern traveller an object for wonder and admiration, little is known. By some, it is supposed to have been the Tadmor of the desert, built by Solomon. But, that so splendid a city should have risen in the midst of a barren waste, can be accounted for only by its situation, it lying between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean sea, thus constituting an emporium for the merchandize conveyed in caravans from India to Europe.

In the contests between the Romans and Parthians, Palmyra maintained its independence, until the victories of Trajan ; after which it sunk into a Roman province.

In the war which Sapor waged with the Romans, and in which the emperor Valerian was made prisoner by the Persians, Odenatus, the prince of Palmyra, was the only Persian ally who rendered the Roman empire any service. He made an attempt to recover Valerian, which though unsuccessful, harassed the Persians, and prevented the further progress of their arms. To reward his service, Gallienus declared him his colleague in the empire. Odenatus was assassinated by his nephew.

Zenobia, his widow, immediately after his death, assumed his authority, and added to his dominions the kingdom of Egypt, from whose ancient Macedonian kings she claimed to be descended. Such was her reputation, that Persia, Armenia, and Arabia, dreaded her power, and courted her favour. Her sway extended over Syria, and she assumed the splendid title of "Queen of the East." Zenobia is represented as a personification of mingled loveliness and majesty. These blended harmoniously in her face and figure, in the sound of her voice, and in the powers of her mind, improved by the education which she had received from the celebrated Longinus. She was mistress of the learned languages,

well versed in the poetry of Homer, and in the philosophy of Plato. In conduct she was prudent or firm, economical or liberal, as the occasion demanded.

But she had to cope with superior power and superior military skill in her contest with the Roman emperor. Yet Aurelian writes of her, "The Roman people speak with contempt of the war, which I am waging against a woman. They are ignorant both of the character and the fame of Zenobia. It is impossible to describe her warlike preparations, and her desperate courage." This he writes after he had defeated her, at the two battles of Antioch and Edessa, and while he was prosecuting the siege of Palmyra. Here, reduced to the last extremity, Zenobia undertook to escape by flight, but she was taken prisoner, and conveyed to the camp of Aurelian. The monarch reserved her for his triumph, allowed the few Palmyrians who had escaped the desperate siege, to rebuild the city, but stained his glory by putting to death the wise and amiable Longinus.\*

Longinus put to  
death.

Aurelian on his return was gratified by a splendid triumph, in which the beautiful Zenobia, covered with jewels, and bound in chains of gold, followed his triumphal car on foot. Yet he afterwards gave her a beautiful villa at Tivoli, where she found an honourable seclusion.

After his triumph, Aurelian advanced towards Asia with the design of humbling the pride of Persia. On his march, near Byzantium, he was assassinated in a sudden frenzy of the soldiers, who repented the deed as soon as committed.

## SECTION X.

An interregnum of eight months succeeded the death of Aurelian.

275.

Interregnum.

The legions repented the rashness which had deprived them of an able, though severe commander, and humbly requested the senate to appoint a successor. The senate, struck with such unwonted respect from the military, referred back the choice to the army. Three times the reciprocal offer was made, and rejected; meanwhile, the whole Roman world remained tranquil.

The senate at length elected one of their number, venerable for virtue and years, Tacitus, a descendant of the historian. He remonstrated against the choice. "Are

Tacitus.

\* Gibbon, on the authority of Vopiscus and Zosimus, two writers, whom he takes the liberty to disbelieve, whenever they tell improbable stories, says that Zenobia imputed her obstinate resistance to Longinus—a poor excuse for the conduct of Aurelian, if true. But the story is highly improbable, and acknowledged to be inconsistent with the whole tenor of her character. What had Zenobia to gain or to lose, by attributing her conduct to Longinus? She had already lost all but her life, and she knew too well that the "Queen of the East," would be preserved by the conqueror as the proudest trophy to grace his triumph. In fact, Gibbon appears to be far from a profound writer. Allowing the great personal beauty of Zenobia, and the power of her voice in speech, he says, "these trifles become important in speaking of women." They are important in both the sexes. Alexander, and Julius Cæsar, and Pompey, owed much to them. Take from Mark Antony his elegant and manly figure, and his eloquence, and who at this day had ever heard of him?

these limbs, Conscript Fathers," said he, "fitted to sustain the weight of armour, or to practise the exercises of the camp?" But resistance was vain. He was forced to assume the sovereignty. His election was ratified by the legions in France, whither he proceeded. The Scythians had invaded the Asiatic provinces,—he led the troops against them, and obliged them to return. He sunk under the accumulated cares and hardships of a military life, after an energetic reign of six months, and died in Cappadocia.

Florianus, the unworthy brother of Tacitus, waited not for the voice of the senate, but with indecent haste ascended the throne. He found an able and powerful rival in

277.  
Florianus.

Probus. Florianus fell, and Probus already, in effect, master of the empire, submitted his cause to the senate, who, delighted with his respectful behaviour, confirmed his power.

The barbarians of Germany, taking advantage of the interregnum which succeeded the death of Aurelian, had renewed their devastations in the provinces, and destroyed many flourishing cities in Gaul. Probus drove

Barbarian devastations.

back the Franks, recovered the cities, and vanquished the Lygians, a people residing near the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. "Their shields," says Tacitus, "are black—their bodies painted black. They choose for the combat the darkest hour of the night. Their host advances, covered as it were with a funeral shade, nor do they often find an enemy capable of sustaining so strange and infernal an aspect." Yet the disciplined legions of Probus discomfited these spirits of the night, nor were they afterwards known in history. Probus carried the war into Germany also, and compelled the barbarians to sue for peace. To guard that frontier, Probus erected an extensive stone wall, strengthened by towers.

Perceiving that the idleness of the army had been the fruitful source of disorders, he exercised the legions in planting vineyards, and in other useful labours. They murmured, and assassinated him. He appears to have been one of the best, and most unexceptionable of all the Roman emperors.

Carus, the prætorian prefect, was raised by the army to the vacant throne. He associated with him in the government,

282.

Carus.

his two sons, Carinus and Numerian, leaving the west under the charge of Carinus, while Numerian accompanied him to the east, in an expedition against Persia. Carus had advanced to Mesopotamia, and made himself master of the cities of Seleucia and Ctesiphon, when his death, said to have been occasioned by lightning, put an end to the war, as the superstition of the legions would not allow them to proceed farther.

Numerian died by the hand of an assassin, during the return of the army from Asia, and Carinus, dwelling in Rome, displayed a poor imitation of Nero—his profligacy, without his taste.

Numerian and Carinus.

The legions of the east conferred the imperial power on Diocletian,

who from being an obscure peasant of Dalmatia, had risen by his merit to the command of a Roman army. The army of the west adhered to Carinus. A battle was fought at Mœsia. The troops of Carinus were on the point of obtaining the victory, when his assassination, by a tribune whom he had deeply injured, left Diocletian the undisputed sovereignty.

The accession of Diocletian, is an era which marks the commencement of a new system of government, perfected in the reign of Constantine. To the military despotism which had so long governed the nation, now

284.

Diocletian.

succeeded the despotism of the court. Diocletian early associated with himself in the cares of government, his friend and fellow general, Maximianus, and gave him an equal share of the imperial honours. For the better administration of the government, he then chose two colleagues. One was Constantius Chlorus, adopted by Maximianus; the other, Galerius, adopted by himself, to whom were committed a share of the sovereign authority, and who were to be the successors of the emperors. On these colleagues he conferred the titles of Cæsar. They had the command of the provinces of the Rhine and the Danube, while the two emperors reserved for their immediate superintendence, Africa, Italy, and the east. Maximianus resided in Milan, and Diocletian in Nicomedia.

These measures, by depriving Rome of the presence of its emperors, served to diminish the power of the senate, and to sink into oblivion all those republican titles, to which the Romans even yet fondly clung. At such a distance, it could not be expected of the emperors, to apply to the senate for the ratification of their decrees; and the power which had been exercised by them only when at the head of the army, now came to be exercised by them upon all occasions.

Diocletian introduced into his court the pomp and ceremony of the oriental monarchs, and unlike the former emperors, to whom access might at any time be obtained, he kept himself at an elevated distance, and was approached only with prostration. In thus substituting the manners of Persia for those of Rome, the superior mind of Diocletian was probably actuated by other motives than those of vanity. The monarch would thus be less exposed to the rude license of the soldiers, and might avert the fate of his predecessors. The administration of justice by the emperor was rigorous; and his military achievements relieved the empire, for a time, from numerous foreign invaders.

The court of Diocletian.

## SECTION XI.

In the preceding reign, Britain had been dismembered from the empire, by the rebellion of Carausius, a naval commander, who was now acknowledged sovereign of the island, and had taught the inhabitants the rude navigation of the day. To Constantius was assigned the reduction of

296.

Rebellion in Britain.

this province, now greatly valued by the Romans. Civil war had, ere his arrival, completed half his work. Carausius had been assassinated, and a new usurper reigned. The inhabitants readily returned to their allegiance, and after a separation of ten years, were glad to be again under the protection of the Roman Empire.

Galerius kept the Goths in check; Maximianus quelled insurrections which had arisen in Africa, while the superior genius of Diocletian was directed to the Persian war.

The disgrace inflicted on Rome by the proud Sapor, in the person of the venerable Valerian, was as yet unatoned for. The Romans formerly exercised as a right, the honour of nominating the king of Armenia. Sapor had subjected this province.

Tiridates, son of the king of Armenia, had been preserved, while an infant, from the wreck of his father's fortune, and protected by the Roman emperors, during his minority. As he had now arrived at manhood, Diocletian declared him the sovereign of Armenia, and sent him to claim the throne of his father. The Armenians hailed their native prince with every demonstration of joy, having now been ninety-six years under the Persian government; and nobles and people flocked to his standard.

Persia, being at the time embroiled in civil war, had little leisure for the affairs of Armenia, and for a while the arms of Tiridates triumphed. When, however, the civil contests had ended in the elevation of Narses to the Persian throne, Tiridates found himself unable to cope with so powerful an adversary, and had recourse to Roman aid. Diocletian seized the favourable opportunity of humbling in Persia, the only rival of the Roman empire. His arms triumphed, and Persia was compelled to sue for peace. The conditions were honourable and advantageous to Rome.—The boundaries of the empire were somewhat extended, the Armenian prince was acknowledged, and the dependence of Armenia upon Rome established.

After the termination of this war, Diocletian, who had not visited Rome since his elevation, repaired to the city, where he enjoyed a splendid triumph, memorable as the last of these gorgeous exhibitions of human vanity.

In the twenty-first year of his reign, not long after his triumph, and when the empire had been delivered from its foreign enemies, and restored to peace, Diocletian

304.

Diocletian resigns.

formally resigned the imperial power, and retired with philosophic calmness to the enjoyment of an elegant retreat in Dalmatia. He had prevailed on Maximianus to resign his power also; and the abdication of the two emperors, the one in Milan, the other in Nicomedia, took place on the same day.

Constantius survived his elevation to the rank of Augustus but fifteen months, when he died in Britain, where the inroads of the Caledonians had exercised his arms.

304.

Constantius.

306.

Constantine the Great.

Constantine, his son, then at York, was immediately saluted Augustus and emperor, by the British army. Spain, Gaul, and Britain, ratified the nomi-

nation. The inhabitants of Rome felt more than ever, the weight of the taxes which were levied with merciless severity upon them, and were indignant at the continued absence of the emperors from the imperial city. The senate, and the prætorians, whose power Diocletian had almost annihilated, joined in a conspiracy with the citizens, and Maxentius, the son of Maximianus, was invested, at Rome, with the imperial dignity. The restless spirit of Maximianus could not submit tamely to the retirement to which Diocletian had doomed him; and he now came forward to lend his name and aid to the party of his son, assuming to himself the exercise of imperial power. Two other claimants appeared, and Rome now felt the evils of a divided government; no less than six emperors, at enmity among themselves, shared the sovereign power. These dissensions led to civil wars. After a period of eighteen years, the genius of Constantine triumphed over all his rivals, and he remained sole master of the empire.—This period contains only disgusting pictures of discord, confusion, and carnage.

## SECTION XII.

Constantine possessed a lofty and majestic stature, a bold, open countenance, and a graceful deportment. His constitution was made healthy by vigorous exercise in youth, and preserved by temperance and sobriety in later life. In business he was indefatigable, and he looked with a vigilant eye to the affairs of government; while by rendering kindness to all who approached him, he secured love, at the same time that his talents and virtues commanded respect. Such was Constantine while dangers surrounded him; but when released from fear, and placed above responsibility, his character seems to have fallen from its elevation. Among other unworthy acts, he is charged with jealous cruelty to his son.

Two events, which mark the boldness of his genius, render his reign memorable in the history of the world. The first, was his removal of the seat of the Roman empire to Constantinople, a city which he had founded. The second was his adoption of Christianity, as the religion of the empire.—Christianity, up to this period, had met no favour from civil power, but on the contrary, had suffered silent obloquy, or active persecution from the Roman government.\*

328.  
Constantinople the  
seat of the empire,  
and the Christian  
religion adopted.

\* If in the course of history, we show that human passions, and natural causes, contributed to the extension of a religion whose divinity is attested by a severe and holy purity, before unknown to the world, let it be remembered that there is a chasm in the chain of human means, by which Christianity was established, which cannot be supplied but on the supposition of divine agency. It is in vain that infidelity seeks to shake our faith, by saying that when men were offered eternal life, on condition of their abandoning the pleasures of this life, they accepted the offer, because it was an advantageous bargain. Where did the Apostles, and teachers of this religion, get their own invincible faith, that the doctrine was indeed TRUE? a faith which made them disregard labour, sufferings, and death.

On the death of Constantine, his dominions were divided between his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans. The youth of these princes, unlike that of

337.

Constantine II. Constantius, and Constans.

their father, was not spent in martial exercises, but in the effeminacy of a court. He knew that he had his fortune to make, they felt that theirs was secured. Hence their administration wanted the vigour of his, while they imitated his ambition and cruelty. During the first year of their reign, two uncles and seven cousins were sacrificed to their jealous fears. With the exception of Gallus and Julian, sons of the brother of Constantine, whose youth and feeble constitution alone saved them, these princes destroyed all the male members of the Constantine family, and at length turned their arms against each other.

Constantine, who governed the eastern portion of the empire, found himself early involved in a Persian war. The fame

Persian War.

of Constantine the Great had checked, while he lived, all encroachments on the eastern provinces.—Sapor, the grandson of Narses, was now on the Persian throne, and had, for several campaigns, waged a successful war upon the provinces. Constantine marched against him; still the Persian arms triumphed, and at Singara, Constantine sustained a memorable defeat. At length both monarchs were obliged to withdraw their forces, and a peace was concluded.

The sons of Constantine had been but three years on the throne, when a dispute arose between Constantine and Constans, which ended in the violent death of the former.

Constans, now sole master of the west, maintained his authority for

340.

Constans, sole emperor of the west.

ten years. He then fell a victim to the ambition of Magnentius, the general of the Gallic legions, who assumed the purple.

Constantius.

Constantius resolved to avenge the death of his brother Constans, and to secure to himself the undivided sovereignty of the empire. In Magnentius, who had enlisted in his cause the warlike legions of Gaul and Italy, Constantius found a formidable adversary. The hostile armies met at Mursa, and a bloody battle gave Constantius the victory. Fifty-four thousand of the veteran soldiers of the empire were left dead upon the field; and Magnentius, despairing of the crown, put an end to his life.

The civil wars had given the barbarians an opportunity of renewing their depredations upon the frontier provinces. The

Barbarian depredations. Franks and the Alemanni had made inroads into Gaul. Their devastations had extended to various parts of the province. Flourishing towns were laid in ashes, and the inhabitants compelled to flee from the country to the fortified cities, where they were obliged to depend for subsistence upon the scanty supply of grain raised within the walls.

The eastern provinces were in an equally calamitous condition.—The Sarmatians had passed the Danube, and the Persian monarch, now returned from a victorious expedition against the Scythians, again threatened the provinces of Asia. Constantius found himself



unequal to the weight of the empire, and was constrained to look for some one with whom to divide its cares. His cousin Julian, now the only remaining member of the Constantine family, had been left to pursue his studies in obscurity, among the Grecian philosophers. Constantius appointed him Cæsar, and gave him the command of the provinces of Gaul; while he himself conducted in person the war with the Sarmatians. He defeated them, and compelled them to supplicate for peace.

Julian made Cæsar.

### SECTION XIII.

Meanwhile, Julian, whose abilities for action had been despised on account of his love of study, showed himself an able general, in a successful contest with the Franks and Alemanni. The fame of his hardy perseverance and successful enterprise, spread through the empire, and increased the already awakened jealousy of Constantius. He issued an order, commanding a large detachment of the veterans who were under Julian, to march to the aid of the eastern legions. The troops, reluctant to enter upon what they deemed a foreign service, and unwilling to leave a general whom they loved, for an emperor whom they despised, refused obedience, and at once proclaimed Julian emperor.

360.

Julian proclaimed emperor.

Julian, though with feigned reluctance, accepted the crown, and instantly prepared to enforce his claim. Constantius and the Imperial legions were still in the east, feebly maintaining the Persian war. Julian resolved to attack Constantinople. Making a division of his forces into three parts, which were to meet at Lirmium, one division was sent through the midland parts of Rhætia and Noricum; another through the Alps, and the northern parts of Italy; while the remaining division, commanded by himself, penetrated the Marcian forests which covered the sources of the Danube, and embarked on that river. The diligence of his boatmen, and a favourable wind, enabled Julian to land at Pannonia, nineteen miles from Lirmium, while his enemies were still ignorant that he had left the Rhine.

Constantius, on learning the activity and boldness of his competitor, relinquished the Persian war, and commenced his march towards Europe; but his death, which occurred on his homeward route, relieved the empire from the expected horrors of civil war.

The reign of Julian was memorable for the re-establishment of the pagan religion. From whatever cause his enmity to Christianity might have arisen, whether from a blind and superstitious reverence for the pagan worship, or from having associated with Christianity the remembrance of the irreparable injuries which his family had sustained from the Constantines, the fact cannot but diminish our regard for a character, which united many valuable qualities. He did not indeed revive the persecutions of former pagan emperors, or prohibit the worship of the Christians,

Paganism re established.

yet he removed them from offices of trust, and from the care of the education of youth, and oppressed them in various ways.

In less than a year from the death of Constantius, Julian had settled the concerns of the empire, and proceeded into Asia.

After wintering in Antioch, and making vigorous preparations for the ensuing campaign, early in the spring he marched towards Persia. His success in the early part of his campaign, encouraged his hopes, and inspired the ardour of his troops. He ravaged the plains of Mesopotamia, passed the Euphrates, and spread devastation through a part of Syria.

Julian attempted to rebuild the temple of the Jews at Jerusalem, and engaged with ardour in the work. Yet the joint efforts of the Roman emperor, and the Jewish nation, who gave their most strenuous exertions to the cause, were unable to effect the object. The foundations of the temple were laid, but destroyed by a fiery eruption.\*

361.  
Julian attempts to  
rebuild the Jewish  
temple.

"Horrible balls of fire," say historians, "breaking out from the foundation with frequent and reiterated attacks, rendered the place inaccessible to the workmen. The victorious element continuing in this manner, seemed obstinately bent to drive them to a distance, and the hopeless attempt was abandoned."

At the passage of the Tigris, the Romans obtained an encouraging victory over the Persians, but here their success ended. Julian was induced to burn his fleet at the suggestion of a treacherous Persian, who in the character of a deserter had entered his camp as a spy. As the Romans advanced into the country of the Persians, their provisions failed. The cattle were driven away, the inhabitants had departed, and the country, naturally fertile, now presented only smoking ruins.

The Roman army had, by the deserter, been led into a snare, and was reduced to the greatest necessity.

The emperor now sought to retrace his steps, but the Persian prince, with a numerous army, appeared in sight, hovering around the Romans and harassing their retreat. The Romans attempted to force their way, and Julian was mortally wounded in the contest.—His dying moments were passed in philosophical discourse, apparently in imitation of Socrates.

The unexpected death of the leader of the harassed army, spread confusion and dismay. The officers could not agree upon a successor, when the name of Jovian, a man of no military renown, but attached to the household of Julian, was circulated among the troops. He was immediately declared emperor, and the officers gave their assent.

363.  
Jovian declared emperor.

\* This account is as well attested as most historical facts. A particular description of the remarkable circumstances attending it, was published by Gregory Nazianzen, a Christian writer, the same year, and afterwards by the Roman historian Ammianus Marcellinus, the pagan, from whom the annexed quotation is made. The event was also at that time deemed preternatural by all, and precluded all further attempts towards the erection of the building.

Meanwhile the news of Julian's death had circulated in the Persian army, and gave confidence to their hopes of the entire destruction of the Roman arms. Amid their deliberations and sorrows, the legions had been compelled to continue their retreat, surrounded by the Persians, and momentarily subject to their vexatious and often fatal attacks. Four days after the death of Julian, the disheartened army reached the city of Dura. The Tigris was still to be crossed, and they were almost in despair of effecting their escape. Here Sapor, the Persian king, sent them proposals of peace, and disgraceful as they sounded in Roman ears, they were accepted. The provinces beyond the Tigris, which Diocletian had obtained of Narses, were now ceded to Persia, and the impregnable city of Nisibis, which had so often resisted the Persian arms, together with some of the strongest fortresses in Mesopotamia, was surrendered.—The army were now suffered to pursue their homeward way, in ignominious peace.

## SECTION XIV.

On the accession of Jovian, Christianity again became the established religion of the empire. But his reign of a few months, was terminated by his death before he reached Constantinople.

Valentinian, a commander of the guards, was unanimously proclaimed his successor. He appointed his brother Volens, as his colleague, committing to him the eastern provinces, while himself retired to the western, where he prosecuted the war against the barbarians with considerable success. Yet the decline of the empire became more and more apparent. The civil wars of the sons of Constantine had destroyed vast numbers of soldiers, and left the frontiers exposed to the depredations of the barbarians. The valour and energy of Julian had, indeed, for a moment, checked their incursions, but his unsuccessful Persian war had still farther weakened the military force of the empire, and prepared the way for the ignominious peace which Jovian concluded.

364.

Valentinian and Volens.

375.

Gratian.

Valentinian died in the twelfth year of his reign, and left his dominions to his son, Gratian, a youth of seventeen ; with the condition that a younger son, named Valentinian, then an infant, should be associated with him.

The Goths, who had repeatedly invaded the empire, again appeared on its frontier, not indeed in the character of hostile barbarians, but of humble suppliants, themselves driven from their dominions, by a new and formidable enemy.

The Goths implore aid of the Romans.

The Huns.

The Huns, a race inhabiting the north of Asia, and more barbarous than either the Goths or Germans, had been precipitated by the wars in the east, upon the frontiers of Europe. Passing the Volga, they had subdued the nations of the Alani, who inhabited the regions between the Volga and Tanais, and

advanced upon the kingdoms of the Goths. Their first appearance on the Gothic frontier, was in the declining days of the great chief, Hermanric, whose dominion, it is said, extended from the Baltic to the Danube, and lake Mæotis, and who had united under his sway the two great portions of the Gothic race—the western Goths, or Visigoths, and the eastern Goths, or Ostrogoths; the former governed by the house of the Balti, the latter by that of the Amali. The death of Hermanric, prevented the united efforts of the Goths in checking the invaders, and the Ostrogoths soon submitted to the Huns.

The Visigoths, alarmed at the approach of this formidable race, supplicated the emperor, Valens, for vacant lands on the southern banks of the Danube, engaging to guard the frontier from the still more dreaded Huns.

Valens agreed to admit the Gothic nation within the empire, on certain conditions, to which they acceded; but the most important of which,—the relinquishment of their arms,—they afterwards evaded. The nation was transported across the Danube to improve the waste land of Thrace, and a multitude of barbarians were

376.

Goths allowed to settle in the Roman Empire.

thus admitted to a peaceful settlement within the bounds of the empire. The number who composed this emigration, is estimated at nearly a million, and among them might be collected two hundred thousand warriors.

The emperor granted the Goths permission to engage in traffic, but the avarice of the Roman ministers not only rendered the permission useless, but destructive to them. At length, they exhausted their property in procuring the means of subsistence, and were compelled to sell their children to obtain the necessaries of life.

The treachery of the Roman governor of Marcianopolis towards Fritigern, enkindled his wrath. He summoned his countrymen to arms; Mæsia was desolated, and his army proceeded to threaten the capital of the Roman empire.

Insurrection of the Goths.

## SECTION XV.

Valens now sought to crush an enemy whom he had introduced into the bosom of the empire, and Gratian, who had just succeeded his father in the west, was summoned to his aid. An irruption of the Alemanni employed the resources of the western emperor, and prevented him from giving assistance to Valens.

The Visigoths, meanwhile, had formed alliances with a body of Ostrogoths, who had procured a settlement on the southern side of the Danube, and also with some hordes of the Alani and Huns. On the plains of Hadrianople, Valens met the barbarians, and the courage and skill of the Roman legions failed in the encounter. The emperor was wounded, and conveyed to a building, which was fired by the enemy, and he perished in the flames. Two thirds of the imperial army were destroyed; the remainder fled.—The Goths now extended their ravages to the suburbs of Constantinople.

Gratian, meanwhile victorious over the Alemanni, marched to the relief of the East, and learned on his journey the death of Valens, and the defeat of his army. Sensible of his inability to sustain the weight of an empire sinking under numerous foes, he associated with himself,

in the government, Theodosius, a native of Spain.

Theodosius. His father was a general, who had distinguished himself in the reign of Valentinian, but was unjustly put to death by the order of Gratian himself.

Theodosius was worthy of the imperial dignity. On the death of his father, abstaining from all political interests, he returned to his native home, to cultivate his lands, and superintend his flocks. But the magnanimity of his temper, and the superiority of his genius, impelled the emperor in his hour of peril to call him to his aid. Theodosius was free from the vain glory of conquest, and pursued at first, a careful and watchful policy. From Thessalonica, which he made his head quarters, he kept his eyes fixed upon the barbarians, and availed himself of every judicious opportunity of wasting their forces, or gaining over their leaders.

Fritigern died, and disunion among the Goths ensued ; the different tribes pursued their own individual interests without concert or design ; and in four years from the death of Valens, the policy of Theodosius procured an advantageous peace ; the conditions of which were arranged in the neighbourhood of Constantinople. Theodosius invited their aged chief, Athanaric, to visit his capital, and partake the hospitalities of his palace. The chieftain was astonished at the grandeur and magnificence of the objects presented to his view. "Truly," exclaimed he, "the emperor of the Romans is a God upon earth, and the presumptuous man, who dares to lift his hand against him, is guilty of his own blood." Athanaric sickened and died. Theodosius paid the most respectful honours to his remains ; and his grateful soldiers, thus converted into friends, entered into his legions, declaring that while he lived, they would acknowledge no other chief.

While Theodosius was thus calming the disorders of the east, a new insurrection had arisen in the west. The indolence of Gratian had alienated the affections of his subjects. Maximus, at the head of his legions, entered Gaul, where he was hailed as emperor. Gratian, who was at Paris, fled to Lyons, and was there assassinated, through the intrigues of Maximus. This revolution was so speedily effected, that Theodosius had no opportunity of sending aid to his benefactor. At first, he dissembled his resentment, and permitted Maximus to administer the government of Gaul.

Afterwards, Maximus invaded the provinces of Italy, and compelled the empress, Justina, with her young son Valentinian, and her daughter Galla, to flee for succour to the emperor of the east. Theodosius did not invite her to his court, but met her at Thessalonica, whither she had come by sea. His wife being dead, he married the beautiful Galla, and then marched, at the head of a hardy and disciplined army, into Pannonia. On the banks of the Save, he met and defeated the forces of Maximus, whom he caused to be executed for the

Gratian. But the mother and sisters of the usurper were provided for by the conqueror, and treated with respectful kindness.—The provinces returned to their allegiance; and Theodosius, superior to the seductions of prosperity, so often fatal to virtue, magnanimously restored Valentinian to the throne of Milan, and added to his dominions the provinces of Britain and Gaul. But the young prince soon fell a victim to domestic treason; and Theodosius, having punished the traitors, remained sole monarch of the empire, now, for the last time, united under the sway of one sovereign.

384.

Theodosius sole emperor.

Since the reign of Constantine, Christianity had been rapidly declining from its primitive purity; and ambitious men sought, through its medium, to gratify the unhallowed lust of power. By gradually extending the authority of the bishops, the foundation of Ecclesiastical power was laid of that abominable oppression, which for so many ages was to press on the moral and intellectual energies of Europe. During the reign of Theodosius, the ecclesiastical power manifested itself as already superior to the civil. Ambrose, bishop of Milan, had forbidden to the empress Justina, mother of Valentinian II., and who reigned in his name, the use of a chapel, where she might worship agreeably to her belief of the Arian doctrines. The bishop next sternly and openly denounced her as a heretic, and when she passed an edict to banish him, he refused to obey.

Theodosius had, in a moment of passion, given the only cruel order which stains his equitable government, that of putting to the sword the offending people of Thessalonica. He repented, and sought, too late, to hinder its execution. Ambrose boldly reproached him, and exacted of him public penance. The master of the world, in a mournful and suppliant posture, with sighs and tears, confessed and deplored his crime in the presence of the congregation.

Theodosius does penance.

Theodosius died at Milan, a few months after he had quelled the disturbances consequent on the death of Valentinian, lamented by the church to which he had been admitted; by the Roman people, whom he had governed with moderation; and even by the vanquished provinces who had experienced his kindness.

## PERIOD II.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Division of { **FIRST EPOCH**A, 395 A. D. } the Roman Empire,

TO THE

Hegira or { **SECOND EPOCH**A, 622 A. D. } Flight of Mahomet.

### CHAPTER I.

#### THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

##### SECTION I.

The student has hitherto found his attention directed to some one great nation, extending its influence to all the smaller kingdoms and nations of the earth, and thus at the same time, placing before him the whole civilized world. The Egyptian, Assyrian and Chaldean, the Macedonian, Persian, Grecian and Roman nations, have successively risen to his view. But from this period he will find his attention divided, first, between the two Roman empires, now distinct and separate governments, and subsequently, between various independent, and powerful nations, arising from the ruins of the Roman empire, and the civilization of the northern barbarians.

On the death of Theodosius, his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, succeeded to the empire. Arcadius, the emperor of the east, reigned over the provinces of Thrace, Dacia, Macedonia, Syria, and Egypt. The western empire allotted to Honorius, comprised Italy, Africa, Gaul, Spain, and Britain, and the provinces of Noricum, Pannonia, and Dalmatia. Theodosius had quelled the disturbances among the Goths, and restored tranquillity to the empire.

But, although the Goths had bowed to the superior abilities of Theodosius, they knew their own strength, and the weakness of the empire. The Roman armies were not only filled with barbarian auxiliaries, but they were also at this time, not unfrequently commanded by chiefs of barbarian origin; while the indolent and effeminate citizens refused to

395.

Arcadius and Honorius.

Causes of the downfall of the empire.

leave their luxurious pleasures for the service of their country. Luxury had, in another manner, laid the train for the subversion of the empire. The Roman soldiers had obtained permission of the different emperors, to cast aside their heavy shields and a part of their armour, so that when they were exposed to the attacks of the barbarians, now instructed in the art of war, clad in armour, and skilful in the use of missile weapons, the contest was unequal, and the barbarians had the advantage. The youth and incapacity of Arcadius and Honorius subjected them to the control of their favourites. Rufinus, a Gaul, governed the councils of Arcadius, in the eastern empire, while Stilicho, a Vandal, directed the administration of his brother, in the western.

The western Goths had made Alaric, of the family of the Balti, their chief, and only a few months elapsed, after the

403.

Alaric.

death of Theodosius, before the Gothic nation was in arms. Alaric passed with his barbarians into Greece, and spread desolation through Macedonia, Thessaly, and Attica. Rufinus, deeming it a stroke of policy to turn their arms upon Italy, negotiated an alliance with them, and privately advised Alaric to seek his fortune in the western empire, promising that succour should be sent.

The Goths accordingly broke up their settlement in Mœsia and Dacia, and proceeded towards Illyricum, Istria, and the northeast of Italy. Stilicho, at the head of the western legions, advanced to repulse them. The history of their progress is obscure, but it is certain that Stilicho obtained a decided advantage at Pollentia, and that they were compelled to retreat. Alaric was again defeated at Verona; and the vigilance and skill of Stilicho finally procured a temporary peace.

The fears of Honorius were awakened by this invasion, and to preserve his person from danger, he removed his residence from Milan to Ravenna, a more secure situation, which henceforth became the imperial city.

Meanwhile, an irruption of Pagan barbarians occurred, more formidable than even that of the Goths, who were now

Ravenna the capital.

Irruption of German tribes.

Christianized, and possessed the rudiments of civilization. These were a confederacy of the German nations, the Vandals, Suevi, Burgundians, and part of the Alani, to the number of 200,000 fighting men; and, headed by their king, Radagaisus, they now issued from the shores of the Baltic, showed themselves upon the banks of the upper Danube, passed into Italy, and laid siege to Florence. The active Stilicho appeared with his army, surrounded the barbarians, besieged them in their camp, reduced them to the greatest distress and compelled them to capitulate. Radagaisus perished, but a great portion of his army retreated, and abandoning Italy, proceeded to devastate and take possession of Gaul, from the Rhine to the Pyrenees.—This, says Gibbon, may be considered as the fall of the Roman empire beyond the Alps.

The feeble and contemptible Honorius, whose principal occupation, history informs us, was to feed poultry, was, in the absence of his



minister, moved by the arts of an ambitious flatterer, to jealousy and hatred against the only man, whose talents could support his tottering state; and Stilicho was murdered.

Alaric, no longer held in check by fear, resumed his schemes of conquest. He advanced into Italy, besieged Rome,

410. Alaric besieges and sacks Rome. and the venerable city was forced to purchase with money the retreat of the barbarians. The conditions of the payment not being strictly complied with, Alaric made this a pretence to return. Again he besieged Rome, and compelled the reluctant senate to receive from him Attalus, the prefect of the city, as their emperor. The city was still spared, but the Gothic troops overran and devastated Italy. Attalus did not long enjoy the favour of the Gothic chief, who, the following year, degraded him from the imperial dignity. Honorius, at Ravenna, still refused to make peace with the Goths. They returned, thirsting for spoils, and bent upon destruction; and Rome, so long vaunted as the "eternal city," was taken, and suffered, during six days, the horrors of sack and pillage from a barbarous soldiery.

The victorious Alaric then passed triumphantly forth, and bent his course to the south of Italy, intending to embark for Africa, when

Adolphus.

death put an end to his conquests. Adolphus, his brother-in-law, succeeded to the command of the Goths. His first intention was to make Rome the seat of a new empire of the Goths, but finding by study, that law and order were essential to a well constituted state, and that the yet unlearned Goths would not submit to these, he magnanimously resolved to seek a country more favourable to the genius of his countrymen; and to leave Italy to be governed by her own regulations. After the Goths had enjoyed an undisputed control during four years, he concluded a peace with Honorius, and received from his hand, his sister Placidia\* in marriage. He retired from Italy into Gaul, and from thence into Spain, where he founded the kingdom of the Visigoths.

## SECTION II.

Britain, during this period of confusion, had thrown off its allegi-

ance to the Roman government, and its independence had been acknowledged by Honorius. He had ceded the lands of Upper Germany to the Burgundians, and of Lower Germany to the Franks. After an ignominious reign of twenty-eight years, Honorius died. Adolphus had fallen in war, and Placidia, having returned to Italy, had become the wife of

Constantius.

Constantius. After a few months possession of the

\*The young Placidia was the daughter of the great Theodosius and Galla. She was taken prisoner at the sack of Rome, and carried away by the barbarians, but was treated with respect. She captivated Adolphus; and the elegant person and ingenuous mind of the youthful soldier were not regarded by her with indifference; and it may be that Italy was, on this occasion, indebted as much to love as to reason, for deliverance.

throne, made vacant by the death of his brother, Constantius was assassinated, and his son, Valentinian, was proclaimed emperor.

Valentinian was but six years of age, and the administration of the

424.

Valentinian III.

government was committed to his mother, Placidia, as regent. The armies of the empire were commanded by Ætius and Boniface, between whom there was an irreconcilable enmity. The misrepresentations of Ætius led Placidia to distrust the loyalty of Boniface, and to recal him from Africa, where he held the command. Boniface, who has been styled the last of the Romans, was roused by the suspicion of his integrity, and was at length driven, though very reluctantly, into revolt.

By his invitation, Genseric, king of the Vandals, who was established in Spain, now transported his hosts across the straits of Gibraltar, and drew to his camp the wan-

Genseric.

dering Moors. He commenced a course of rapine and devastation in the Roman province of Africa. Boniface learned too late, the treachery which had been practised upon him, and returned to his allegiance. But the provinces from Tangiers to Tripoli, had become a prey to the destructive fury of the Vandals. Boniface engaged in battle with them, but was defeated, and compelled to retreat. The success of the Vandals was for a time retarded by a treaty with the western emperor, but in eight years, Genseric had obtained possession of Carthage, and permanently established a kingdom.

While the arms of Genseric had torn from the empire a rich and fruitful province in Africa, a still more threatening tempest was rising in the north. The Huns, who had driven the Goths and Vandals from the north of Europe, now spread their savage hosts from the

442.

Attila, king of the Huns.

banks of the Volga to those of the Danube. Attila, their king, claimed descent from the ancient Huns, who had contended with the monarchs of China. Seven hundred thousand warriors followed his banners. He had conquered the various nations of barbarians who still inhabited northern Europe. The Gepidæ, and the Ostrogoths, the kings of Scandinavia and of the islands, owned his supremacy. His depredations extended to Persia; and Theodosius II., now emperor of the east, was compelled to pay him tribute. He made an alliance with Genseric, and preventing the eastern emperors from yielding assistance to Valentinian, facilitated the conquests of the Vandal king.

Resolved on war with the western empire, Attila sought to unite with him the barbarian nations of Gaul, among which the Visigoths, headed by Theodoric, the son of Alaric, and permanently settled in the south of Gaul, were the most formidable. The artifices of Alaric had been used to procure the friendship of Theodoric, and the Gothic monarch wavered between the rival powers. Ætius, the Roman general, baffled his arts, marched into Gaul, secured the co-operation of Theodoric in its defence, and drew to his standard as allies, the Saxons, the Burgundians, the Sarmatians, or Alani, the Franks, and other powerful tribes.

At Chalons, *Ætius* and his auxiliaries encountered the formidable host of *Attila*, and in a bloody battle compelled him to retreat. The number slain in the battle, was computed at one hundred and sixty two thousand. The Visigoths constituted the strength of the Roman forces. *Theodoric*, their valiant king, fell in the battle. The Goths, animated by the son of *Theodoric*, were furious to revenge his death, but the policy of *Ætius*, who wished to preserve the Huns, as a counterpoise to the power of the Goths, secured *Attila* a retreat.

The power of *Attila*, however, was not broken, nor his resources exhausted. The ensuing spring, with apparently undiminished strength, he passed the Alps, and invaded Italy, besieged and took *Aquileia*, *Milan*, and *Pavia*. *Valentinian* made a hasty retreat from *Ravenna* to *Rome*, and the defence of the nation was again committed to *Ælius*, who, destitute of other troops than his domestic forces, found himself unable to withstand or retard the depredations of the enemy. The barbarians of Gaul refused to march to the defence of Italy. An embassy, accompanied by *Leo*, bishop of *Rome*, in his sacred robes, was dispatched to the barbarian camp. *Attila* listened with attention to their humble supplications, and acceded to a treaty, which purchased the temporary safety of Italy, at an immense price.

The death of *Attila*, which occurred soon after his retreat, by disuniting the various nations who had yielded to the sway of his genius, ruined the power of the Huns, and relieved *Rome* for a time from the terror of its most formidable enemy. Yet the destruction of the empire was not to be stayed by the removal of external foes. Its internal strength was gone, nor did any virtue remain, to give hopes of recovery. The feeble *Valentinian*, (no longer governed by the wise counsels of *Placidia*, now dead,) gave way to jealousy, and the first sword, which perhaps he had ever drawn, was plunged into the bosom of the faithful *Ætius*. He thus, as he was told by a bold Roman, "cut off his right hand with his left." His vices did not long remain unpunished; and he himself fell a victim to the vengeance of *Petronius Maximus*, an injured husband.

*Maximus* was elected emperor, but his reign continued only three months. He compelled *Eudoxia*, the widow of *Valentinian*, to marry him, and the indignant empress secretly called for the aid of *Genseric* to avenge her wrongs.

*Genseric*, now become powerful by his naval force, had extended his piracies into every part of the Mediterranean. Joyfully accepting the invitation to invade Italy, he landed his troops at the mouth of the *Tiber*, and advanced to the gates of the now defenceless city. *Maximus*, on learning the approach of the Vandals, attempted to escape, but was slain in the streets. The entreaties of *Leo*, again saved the city from conflagration, but for fourteen days and nights, it presented horrible scenes of pillage and rapine. Private and public wealth, the treasures of temples, and churches, became the prey of the Vandals. "The orna-

*Genseric* pillages  
*Rome*.

ments of the capitol, with the statues of the gods, which since the introduction of Christianity, had not been removed, with the treasures and vessels of the holy temple of Jerusalem, which had been brought by Titus to adorn his triumph, were alike embarked for Carthage, but were lost on the passage." The empress Eudoxia, and her three daughters, were carried prisoners to Africa, with multitudes of Roman women and children.

Avitus, of Gaul, was at Toulouse on an embassy to Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, when the news of Maximus, and of the recent disasters at Rome, was received.

Avitus.

The vacant throne tempted his ambition. The powerful Theodoric encouraged it, and by his influence, Avitus was received into Rome as emperor. Count Recimer, a descendant of the kings of the Goths, commanded the barbarian troops who formed the defence of Italy. Indignant that he should not have been consulted, in the choice of an emperor, he compelled Avitus to abdicate. Recimer, for many years, maintained the entire and absolute dominion in Italy, though reigning under the name of emperors, whom he elevated and deposed at pleasure.

On the abdication of Avitus, Recimer raised to the imperial dignity Majorianus, a man of virtue and talents, who in his own person, seemed to revive the image of the Roman majesty. He attempted the character of a

457.

Majorianus.

reformer, but the various classes who derived advantage from the existing abuses of the degenerate times, united against him. Italy suffered severely from the piracies of the Vandals, and Majorianus built a fleet, and attempted to subdue the power of Genseric. The attempt proved unsuccessful, and afforded Recimer an opportunity of alienating the minds of the mercenary troops. Majorianus was deposed.

Severus next possessed the name of emperor, while Recimer exercised the power. Finding himself inadequate, without a navy, to prevent the depredations of the Vandals, Recimer solicited the aid of Leo, who now

461.

Severus.

filled the imperial throne of Constantinople, and his assistance was granted, on condition that he should nominate an emperor of the west.

Athemius, who had married the daughter of Marcian, the predecessor of Leo, was crowned, and repaired to Italy. To strengthen his power, he gave his daughter in marriage to Recimer.

467.

Athemius.

The strength of the east was now employed in preparations for a war with Genseric; an immense fleet was prepared, and the eastern and western empires united in the expedition. The enterprise failed through the incapacity of Basiliscus, the commander; and Genseric continued master of the sea. Recimer became jealous of Athemius, and espoused the interest of Olybrius, who had married the daughter of the empress Eudoxia, marched to Rome, took the city, and delivered it up to pillage. He slew Athemius, and declared Olybrius emperor. Forty days after, Recimer died, and Italy rejoiced in the death of the tyrant.

Olybrius reigned but seven months. Two competitors appeared,

472.

Olybrius, Glycerius, and Julius Nepos.

Glycerius, a Roman, and Julius Nepos, the governor of Dalmatia. Glycerius exchanged his crown for a mitre, and Julius Nepos was received by the senate, and reigned a year. Orestes, a Pannonian,

who commanded the motley army of barbarians who had enlisted in the Roman service, now excited a rebellion among them. Nepos, on

475.

Augustulus Romulus.

their approach to Ravenna, retreated to Dalmatia, and Orestes proclaimed his son, Augustulus Romulus, emperor of the west. Orestes found the power he

had easily acquired for his son, not easily sustained. The barbarians who procured his elevation, not content by the increase of their pay and privileges, required him to divide among them a third of the lands of Italy. Orestes refused to sacrifice the natives of the soil to their capricious demands. Among them was the valiant and ambitious Odoacer, king of the Heruli, a savage people, who had migrated first from the coast of the Baltic, and afterwards were found in Pannonia and Noricum. They promoted him to the command, and rebelled against the authority of Orestes. Orestes was executed, and Augustulus Romulus laid down his sceptre, and found mercy in the camp of the Herulian chief.—So passes from the historic scene the last emperor of Rome.

It is a singular coincidence, that his name contains that of the first king and founder of Rome, and also of the first emperor, reminding us of the infancy, the maturity, and the fall of the empire.

Odoacer, now declared king of Italy, was the first barbarian who reigned under that name. The western empire,

476.

Odoacer.

after existing from the foundation of Rome, 1229 years, was now extinct, while the eastern, at the

period of their separation in a like state of decay, continued nearly a thousand years longer.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

#### SECTION I.

The annals of the eastern empire present, during this period, few events of interest. The stronger allurements which the west offered to the barbarians, and the subsidies paid by the emperors of the east, preserved the empire in comparative tranquillity.

Arcadius, a weak and timid prince, was succeeded by his son Theodosius. A minor at the time of his accession, his

408.

Theodosius II. and Pulcheria.

whole reign was subject to the influence of his sister, Pulcheria, who on his death, succeeded to the throne. Pulcheria was the first female who sway-

ed the sceptre of the Roman empire. Her own administration, and that of her brother, whose councils she guided, showed her to be a princess of genius and virtue. On her death, the Theodosian family became extinct, in the east.

Marcian, the husband of Pulcheria, continued to reign four years after her death. His administration was vigorous and prudent. Despising the miserable artifices by which former emperors had purchased immunity from the dreaded arms of the Huns, Marcian stopped the payment of the subsidies. The Huns menaced revenge, but the death of Attila occurring at this period, delivered the empire from the danger of the threatened invasion.

Leo, the successor of Marcian, is memorable only as having occupied the throne of Constantinople at the time of the destruction of the western empire. For a period of fifty years, no important events transpired in the east. Zeno, Anastasius, and Justin successively ascended the throne, but left behind them no deed which should preserve their names from oblivion.

The reign of Justinian, who succeeded Justin, was marked by wars with the Vandals, the Goths, and the Persians.—  
527. Justinian I. The kingdom of the Vandals in Africa, founded by Genseric, had obtained a firm and apparently permanent establishment. Hilderic, the grandson of Genseric, had succeeded to the throne, but by some unsuccessful expeditions against the Moors, and the toleration granted to the followers of Athanasius, he had offended great numbers of his subjects. Gelimer, the cousin of Hilderic, deposed him, and assumed the reins of government.

Justinian espoused the cause of the captive monarch, and sent Belisarius with an army into Africa. He achieved the conquest of the Vandals, reduced Carthage, and obtained possession of the person of Gelimer, whom he carried to Constantinople, to grace his triumph. As Hilderic had been executed, the royal race of Genseric was now extinct, and the province of Africa became an appendage to the eastern empire. The life of Gelimer was spared agreeably to the terms of capitulation, and an ample estate granted him in the province of Galatia. He was seen in the triumphal procession of Belisarius, arrayed in his regal robes, and though his pride repressed the utterance of a sigh, or the falling of a tear, he was repeatedly heard to murmur, "Vanity! Vanity! all is vanity!"

The success of Belisarius in the African war, procured for him the command of an expedition against the Ostrogoths of Italy. Here his arms were again triumphant; he subdued Sicily, conquered the greater part of Italy, and returned to Constantinople with Vitiges, the Gothic king, in chains.

The Persian war now claimed the attention of the emperor of the east. Chosroes, or Nashirvan the Just, was seated on the throne. The internal dissensions of his king-

dom, had induced him to procure a truce with the Roman emperor, an event equally desired by Justinian, as it enabled him to turn his military strength against the Vandals of Africa. The successes of the imperial arms in the west, had awakened the jealousy of Chosroes, who availed himself of the earliest opportunity of renewing hostilities. Belisarius turned his victorious arms to the defence of the empire against the monarch of the east, and the war was waged with various and alternate success, until the declining years of Justinian and Chosroes cooled their military ardour, and procured a truce for fifty years.

During the Persian war, the Goths of Italy rebelled. Belisarius was sent against them, but being recalled through the jealousy of the emperor, Narses, another lieutenant of Justinian, was substituted in his place, and effected their complete reduction.

553.  
Narses reduces the Goths.

After the destruction of the Gothic kingdom, the government of Italy was administered by officers styled Exarchs, who held their court at Ravenna, and were the representatives of the eastern emperor.

Exarchs.

The last victory of Belisarius was achieved over the Bulgarians, who were aided by a multitude of barbarous Slavonians. They crossed the Danube, ravaged Macedonia and Thrace, and extended their devastations within a few miles of Constantinople. He, who had so gloriously sustained the military fame of the empire, was now doomed by regal ingratitude to pass his old age in penury and disgrace.

After a reign of thirty-eight years, Justinian died, at the age of eighty-three, and left his dominions to his nephew Justin.

While the arms of the empire had acquired glory abroad, the declining nation was still in distress. Constantinople was distracted by factions. Earthquakes of unusual extent and duration spread desolation in different parts. Antioch, especially, was almost wholly destroyed, and two hundred and fifty thousand persons were supposed to have been buried in its ruins. A most dreadful pestilence spread its ravages through the empire, and for a time its virulence seemed undiminished by the change of seasons. At length its malignancy abated, but for half a century its presence was in some degree felt. In Constantinople, during three months five thousand, and at length ten thousand persons, are reported to have died daily. Many cities of the east were depopulated, and during the reign of Justinian, there is said to have been a visible diminution of the human species.

Disasters of the empire.

Justinian derives his chief reputation from the Roman jurisprudence. With the assistance of Tribonian, an eminent lawyer, he digested and simplified the mass of laws, which had been accumulating for ages, and formed those bodies of laws called the code, the pandects, and the institutes. This was the greatest work of the age, and forms the foundation of the present civil law.

Laws of Justinian.

## SECTION II.

Justin II. was unequal to the weight of government, and associated with himself Tiberius, the captain of the guards.

578.

Justin II. and Tiberius II.

During the short reign of Justin, a part of Italy was conquered by the Lombards, and a Persian war threatened the empire. The reign of Tiberius was short, but his courage, temperance, humanity, and impartiality in the administration of justice, proved him worthy of the throne.

582.

Maurice victorious in Persia.

Maurice, by his nomination, succeeded him.—A revolution had been effected in the Persian kingdom. Hormouk had ascended the throne, but his effeminacy and weakness rendered him an object of contempt to his subjects. An insurrection ended in the deposition and death of Hormouk. Bahram, a powerful and ambitious general, usurped the regal power, and Chosroes, the son of Hormouk, fled to the Romans for protection. Maurice received him favourably, and despatched an army to Persia, which subverted the power of Bahram, and reinstated Chosroes in his rights.

While the generals of Maurice restored the majesty of the Roman arms, in the east; in the west, the weakness of the empire was continually betrayed in the contests with the barbarians.

The Avars, an Asiatic race, had fled from the victorious arms of the Turks, and obtained a settlement in Europe.

The Avars.

By union with the Lombards, they had effected the destruction of the nation of the Gepidæ, and after the Lombards carried their arms and nation into Italy, the Avars extended their dominion from the Euxine to the foot of the Alps. Whenever a Persian war employed the imperial arms in the east, the Avars threatened the empire from the north. As soon as the military force of the empire was released from the Persian war, Maurice hastened to employ it against these barbarians. His generals were ill selected, with the exception of Priscus, who obtained several victories; but the situation of the army and the empire rendered even his victories unprofitable.

On the reception of orders from the emperor to make the country of the Avars their winter quarters, the army, already inclined to mutiny, burst into open revolt, declared Maurice unworthy of the crown, and elevated Phocas, an ignorant and brutal centurion, to the throne. The rebel

602.

Phocas.

army hastened their return to Constantinople. Maurice and his family had fled to Chalcedon, whither the cruel emissaries of Phocas followed. They compelled the emperor to witness the successive murder of his five sons. The agonized father uttered the ejaculation, "Thou art just, O Lord, and thy judgments are righteous." He seemed elevated above all earthly feelings. Even in this dreadful scene, his stern adherence to truth prevailed over parental affection. When the

Family of Maurice massacred.



nurse by falsehood sought to preserve the life of his infant, Maurice disclosed her design, and surrendered his child.

An ignominious peace with the Avars was made by Phocas, who found himself exposed at once to a revolt of the province of Africa, and to the arms of Chosroes, king of Persia, who threatened to avenge the death of his benefactor, Maurice. Phocas, however, retained the throne eight years, during which the Persians wrested from the empire many of its eastern fortresses, and extended the war into Syria.

Revolts in Africa  
and Persia.

Meanwhile the nation grew weary of a tyrannical usurper, and Heraclius, son of the Exarch of Africa, who had never acknowledged the authority of Phocas, advanced at the head of the African forces, to Constantinople; and by an union with the disaffected there, made himself master of the capital, and deposed and executed the vicious monarch.

610.

Heraclius.

The war with Persia continued. Soon after the elevation of Heraclius, Chosroes made himself successively master of Antioch, Jerusalem, and Alexandria. While one army extended the Persian conquests to Tripoli, another marched to the Bosphorus, and, for ten years, lay encamped in the neighbourhood of Constantinople. The Avars renewed their hostilities, and encamped their hosts along the plains of Thrace. Thus, on every side, the speedy dissolution of the empire was threatened.

Empire threatened  
with dissolution.

In this extremity, the funds of the church were appropriated to the service of the empire, and an immense army was levied, while a large subsidy purchased, though it did not secure the neutrality of the Avars. Declining to engage the Persian army which lay encamped opposite the city, Heraclius, master of the sea, transported his forces to the confines of Syria and Cilicia, and pitched his camp near Ipsus, on the ground where Alexander had vanquished Darius. Here secure from attack he organized and disciplined his troops. The Persians repaired to Cilicia, and Heraclius drew them into an engagement, in which victory declared for the Romans.

The Romans victorious  
over the Persians.

In the next campaign, the emperor made the passage of the Black Sea, traversed the mountains of Armenia, and penetrated into the heart of Persia; compelling Chosroes to recal his armies for the defence of his own kingdom. Chosroes, however, still maintained an army in the vicinity of Constantinople, to second the operations of the treacherous Chagan, or chief of the Avars, who, regardless of the subsidy he had received as the price of his neutrality, had entered into an alliance with the Persians. A host of Avars, Gepidæ, Russians, Bulgarians and Sclavonians besieged Constantinople, but were repulsed; while the Persians on the opposite side of the Bosphorus beheld their discomfiture, without being able to render them any assistance.

Constantinople  
besieged.

Heraclius had, meantime, strengthened his army by an alliance

Romans completely  
victorious over the  
Persians.

with the Turks. A memorable battle was fought at Nineveh, in which the Roman arms triumphed, and the glory of the house of Sassan was forever extinguished. Chosroes was shortly after assassinated by his own son, who concluded a peace with the Romans in which he relinquished the conquests of his father; and Heraclius withdrawing his forces from the kingdom, returned to his capital in triumph.

During this period, the student finds his attention distracted amid the various kingdoms established upon the ruins of the western empire, while the conflicts of the barbarous tribes with each other, and their alternate conquests and defeats, render it difficult to preserve with distinctness the thread of general history.

Kingdoms founded  
in this period.

Of the kingdoms founded in this period, the most important were those of England, France, and Spain. In the first and second centuries of the Christian era, we find the people of these countries, England and Spain especially, amalgamating with their conquerors, filling the ranks of the Roman armies, and at length considered as the same nation. Of the separation of each from the empire, and its establishment as an independent kingdom, we are now to give a short account.

## CHAPTER III.

### FRANCE, BRITAIN, SPAIN, ITALY, &c.

#### SECTION I.

The Franks, an association of warlike tribes of Germans, who are said to have derived the name Franks, or Free-

The Franks.

men, from their love of liberty, made some conquests in Gaul, in the third century. They were governed by chiefs of the family of Merovaus.

Clovis, the grandson of Merovaus, was chief of a tribe called the Salian, and the founder of the French monarchy.

481.

Clovis founds the  
French monarchy.

When the western empire was subverted by the barbarians, Gaul was divided between the Romans, the Visigoths, and the Burgundians. Syagrius the Roman commander in Gaul, had in the declining days of the empire, thrown off his allegiance, and established his independence. Clovis took arms against him, defeated him at Soissons, and subjected the Roman provinces of Gaul to the sway of the Franks.

He next engaged in war with the Alemanni, an independent German nation, and defeated them in a great battle. In the course of the engagement, his troops were ready to give way.

496.

Clovis embraces  
Christianity.

Clovis invoked the God of Clotilda, a Christian princess of Burgundy, whom he had married. Rallying his troops to the charge, he obtained the

victory, embraced Christianity, and was baptized at Rheims. "Bend thy head, proud barbarian," said the bishop, as he approached the sacred font. The conversion of Clovis was followed by that of great numbers of his subjects.

His alliance with the Burgundians secured their friendship, while his embracing the Catholic faith, ensured the powerful support of the clergy of Gaul, and afforded the subtle monarch an opportunity of turning their influence to advantage, in a war upon Alaric, king of the Gallic Visigoths, who held the Arian tenets, to which the Gallic clergy were vehemently opposed. The armies of the Visigoths and Franks encountered each other in battle near Poitiers. Alaric was slain, his forces defeated, and the province of Aquitaine, added to the kingdom of the Franks.

On the death of Clovis, his extensive dominions were divided between his four sons. During the reign of these brothers, the dominion of the Franks was extended over Burgundy, but the annals of the kingdom present an unvarying scene of enmity, contention, violence, and bloodshed. Clotaire, the youngest of the four, finally reunited the nation under his sway. On his death, the kingdom was again divided between his four sons, and this second division was followed by even more aggravated and horrid crimes. The death of these four princes, left Clotaire II., grandson of the former monarch of that name, undisputed sovereign of France.

In the decline of the Roman empire, the legions stationed in Britain were withdrawn, and in 448 the island was evacuated by the Romans. The native inhabitants, who for years resisted the discipline and valour of the Roman warriors, had now so degenerated from their primitive courage and strength, that they were wholly unable to withstand the incursion of their hostile neighbours, the Scots, and Picts. Abandoned by the Romans, and incapable of defending themselves, the Britons had recourse to the aid of the Saxons, a race of independent and warlike Germans.

The request of Vortigern, the British king, was heard with joy by the Saxons. Two of their chiefs, Hengist, and Horsa, attended by fifteen hundred Saxon warriors, were despatched to the aid of the distressed monarch.

The Scots and Picts were repulsed, but the Saxons themselves proved to the Britons not less formidable foes. On the invitation of Hengist and Horsa, great numbers of their countrymen flocked to England, and the inhabitants were driven to arms in defence of their possessions. Every part of the country experienced the desolating ravages of barbarian warfare; the most horrid atrocities were committed; no age or sex was exempt from their cruelties.

The command of the Britons was conferred upon Arthur, one of their native princes, who gained advantages over the barbarians, raised the spirits of his countrymen for a while, and restored tranquility to the nation.

At length new emigrations of the Saxons took place, the war was

renewed ; and at the end of one hundred and thirty-five years of distressing warfare, we find the Saxons in possession of all the cultivated parts of South Britain, while the unhappy natives were driven to the mountains of Wales, and Cornwall, and to the district along the north-western coast of the island.—During these disastrous wars, a part of the Britons passed over to the continent, and settled in the Gallic province of Armorica, to which they gave the name of Bretagne or Brittany.

Saxons expel the Britons.

## SECTION II.

The kingdom of the Visigoths founded by Adolphus, was extended by conquests over the Suevi and Vandals, nations who had established themselves on the peninsula at a still earlier day. Their monarchy, at one period, extended from the Loire to Gibraltar, but the conquests of Clovis wrested from them the greater portion of their possessions in France. The Vandals who had preceded the Goths in their invasion of Spain, on the invitation of Boniface, the Roman governor in Africa, abandoned the peninsula, and under their king, Genserich, founded a new monarchy in Africa.

In Italy, was founded during this period, the kingdom of the Ostrogoths. This nation which had been subdued in the irruption of the Huns into Europe, and followed the standard of Attila in their subsequent invasion of the Roman empire, on the death of that powerful monarch, threw off their allegiance to the Huns, and by the force of arms again established their independence.

Theodoric, the son of their monarch, was given as a hostage to

488.

Theodoric.

Zeno, the emperor of the east, with whom the Ostrogoths formed an alliance. Theodoric was a youth of talents, ambition and courage, and after a residence of some years at the Byzantine court, he returned to his nation, elevated above his rude subjects, and prepared, by knowing the weakness of the eastern empire, to conduct against it a formidable war. The emperor, Zeno, apprehensive of the increasing strength of the Ostrogoths, to divert their arms from his dominions, gave Theodoric permission to conquer Italy, still governed by Odoacer, king of the Heruli. Theodoric accordingly advanced to claim possession of the lands bestowed upon him by Zeno, defeated the forces of Odoacer, and established his kingdom upon the ruins of that of the Heruli.

Theodoric reigned thirty-three years. Under his government, Italy was in a state of comparative peace. The Romans or Italians were left in possession of two thirds of the lands, while the remainder was divided among the Goths. The Italians retained their laws, customs, dress, language, personal freedom, and had the civil administration. The last years of the reign of Theodoric were disgraced by the execution of Boethius, the last Roman orator, and of his father in law Symmachus, on the alleged

Boethius,

charge of treason against the Gothic government. Theodoric left no son, but on his death bed, he commended to his nobles his daughter, and her son, then ten years of age. The son soon died with disease, the mother by violence. Thudat succeeded, who was soon displaced to make room for Vitiges. Belisarius conquered the south of Italy, and carried Vitiges a captive to Constantinople. The Goths revolted, when Belisarius left Italy, and proclaimed for their king, Totila, a brave and warlike prince.

543.

Totila.

He rapidly extended his conquests over various parts of Italy. The imperial generals who had succeeded Belisarius were unequal to the defence of the kingdom, and Naples, the provinces of Lucania, Apulia and Calabria, and at length Rome itself, again submitted to the Gothic sceptre. Belisarius, after the close of the Persian war, was again sent to Italy, where he had already begun to retrieve the affairs of the empire, when the jealousy of the imperial court procured his recal, and Narses was despatched thither in his place. In the neighbourhood of Rome, Narses defeated the Gothic army; Totila was slain, and Italy again annexed to the eastern empire.

553.

Soon after the destruction of the kingdom of the Ostrogoths, the repose of the exarchs of Ravenna was disturbed by the ferocious Lombards, and their king Alboin. To the weak

568.

The Lombards.

and often conquered Italians, Alboin was invincible, and with hardly an effort, he made himself master of the greater part of Italy. Ravenna, Rome, and a part of the eastern coast, still remained subject to the emperor, and were governed by the exarch of Ravenna, and officers appointed under him. The reign of Alboin was short. His wife Rosamond, was a princess of the Gepidæ. Alboin had murdered her father, and compelled the loathing Rosamond to drink from a cup made from her father's skull. She avenged the abominable act by his death.

The original seat of the Turks was among the Altai mountains, in the interior of Asia; and the race which in modern

The Turks.

times extended the terrour of their arms into Europe, were originally slaves to the great Khan of Tartary. They were employed by their masters in the manufacture of iron, of which great quantities were found among their native mountains. Leaders at length arose among these slaves, who induced them to throw off their allegiance to their former masters. At different times they invaded China and Persia, and showed themselves dangerous enemies. In the wars of the Byzantine monarchs with the Persians, we find the Turks engaged in alliance with the emperors. In the war of Heraclius, they rendered him effectual service.

The empire of the Turks extended itself by degrees over the northern parts of Asia, while on the south their conquests included the nation of the White Huns, who possessed the cities of Buchara and Samarcand, and it is said they advanced even to the Mæotis in Egypt.

## PERIOD III.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Hegira or { SECOND EPOCH, 622 A. D. } Flight of Mahomet.

TO THE

Coronation of { THIRD EPOCH, 800 A. D. } Charlemagne.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### RISE OF THE MAHOMETAN EMPIRE.

##### SECTION I.

While the monarchs of Constantinople, and Persia, were directing their hostile arms against each other, and the two empires seemed on the brink of destruction; while the Christian religion, corrupted by the introduction of Pagan rites, and the union of the civil and ecclesiastical powers, in the hands of the patriarchs and popes, was divided into various sects, animated by the most rancorous animosity and hatred of each other, a power was rising in the wilds of Arabia, destined to subvert the course of empires, and to establish a new religion in the world.

Mahomet, the most successful impostor who appears on the page of history, was born in Mecca. He was a descendant of one of the most powerful families of Arabia. 569. Mahomet born. Early left an orphan, he was indebted to the protection and kindness of an uncle, Abu Taleb, for his support until the age of twenty-five. Mahomet then engaged in the service of Khadijah, a rich widow of Mecca, whom he subsequently married.—He is represented, as always of a contemplative character, and fond of retiring from the world for religious observances.

It was not until the age of forty, that Mahomet presented himself in the character of a prophet.—His first converts were his wife, Khadijah, his friend Abu Beker, his cousin Ali, and Zeid, a faithful servant. Fourteen proselytes were the sole reward of three years labour. 609. Mahomet appears as a prophet.

The knowledge which Mahomet had obtained of the Christian and Jewish religion, displayed to him the folly of the idolatrous worship of the Arabs; and his first efforts were directed to lead them to the belief of the unity of God. The substance of the faith imposed upon his followers was, "There is but one God, and Mahomet is the Apostle of God." He professed to receive the Koran or Mahometan scriptures, from the angel Gabriel, at different times, as the situation of the prophet and his followers required a revelation. He retired annually to a cave, about three miles from Mecca, where he spent a month in solitude, professedly receiving divine communications, and holding intercourse with the eternal world. The writer of the Koran was necessarily kept secreted, and as Mahomet was himself ignorant of the art of writing, modern historians have supposed that a monk was employed by him on the occasion.

After ten years passed with little success in teaching the inhabitants of Mecca, the enmity of the rulers and the people, among whom was his uncle, compelled him to flee for the preservation of his life. His cousin Ali, Abu Beker, and Zeid, accompanied him in his secret flight to Medina, where he had already some followers. The various tribes and inhabitants of Arabia, were accustomed to pay their annual devotions in the Caaba or temple of Mecca. In their pilgrimages there, many of the citizens of Medina had listened to the eloquence of Mahomet, and become converts to his religion. He was now, in his distress, received by them with enthusiasm. Five hundred citizens advanced to meet him, the people unanimously embraced his faith, and swore allegiance.

The first military exploits of Mahomet and his followers, were to intercept the caravans of Mecca—engaged in the Syrian trade. Abu Sophian, a mortal foe of Mahomet, and head of a tribe called the Koreishites, was returning from Syria with a wealthy caravan. The prophet prepared to intercept it, when a party of the Koreishites from Mecca, arrived to protect their countrymen. Mahomet, abandoning his design upon the caravan, turned his arms against the Koreishites, who were dispersed or slain. Mahomet, seated on a pulpit erected in view of the battle, called for the succour of Gabriel and three thousand angels. But as they did not come to his aid, and he beheld his troops dispirited, and ready to yield, he mounted his horse, and, casting a handful of sand into the air, exclaimed "Let their faces be covered with confusion." The sound of his voice, the action with which he denounced vengeance on his foes, gave strength and assurance to the fanatical Moslems—intimidated the almost victorious Koreishites, who now left the field. Abu Sophian burned with the desire of vengeance, and the following year, Medina was attacked by a force of ten thousand men of various nations. Divisions were excited among the discordant tribes of the Koreish army, and a tempest adding to their distress, Medina was saved. Six years after his expulsion, the arms of the prophet were directed against Mecca, his native city, but the power of the Koreishites preserved it for a time. A treaty was concluded,

622.

Hegira, or Mahometan era.

Military exploits of Mahomet.

by which hostilities were to be suspended for ten years, and the prophet was permitted to enter his native city as a pilgrim. His imposing entrance into the city—his devotion and eloquence, strengthened his cause, and produced the conversion of multitudes. The truce was broken, Mahomet overcame his enemies and entered Mecca victorious. The citizens embraced his religion, and were pardoned.

The submission of Mecca resulted in that of all the neighbouring tribes. The idols were now every where destroyed, and the faith of Mahomet established throughout Arabia: Ten years after his flight from Mecca, at the age of sixty-three, the prophet died, having spread the terrour of his name from the Euphrates to the Red Sea.

Abu Bekir, his friend, was chosen as his successor, or the caliph.

632.

Abu Bekir.

The death of Mahomet had severed the bond which united the various tribes under one standard, and the venerable Abu Bekir, when he accepted the sovereignty, found himself reduced to the necessity of turning his arms against the rebellious Arabs. In his reign of two years, they were again reduced to submission; and his lieutenant, Caled, called by the Arabians the "Sword of God," extended his conquests into Persia.

To Abu Obeidah, another of the Saracen commanders, was entrusted the conduct of a war against the province of Syria.

Syrian War.

He encountered a formidable army sent by the emperor Heraclius to its defence. The Greeks were defeated, multitudes slain, and the remains of the imperial army fled to Antioch and Cæsaræa. The Saracens then invested Damascus, which, seeing no hope of succour, capitulated. The mildness of Abu Obeidah permitted the Christians of that city to depart into exile; after three days, however, Caled, led by an apostate Christian, pursued the fugitives, overtook them, and gave them up to indiscriminate slaughter.

Omar succeeded Abu Bekir in the caliphate. During the first

633.

Omar.

years of the reign of Omar, the Syrian war was prosecuted with unabated vigour. Successive victories increased their enthusiasm, and augmented the numbers of the faithful. Damascus, Heliopolis, Jerusalem, Aleppo, and Antioch successively fell before the Saracens; and in seven years after the death of the prophet, the whole province of Syria bowed under the sceptre of the caliph.

## SECTION II.

In the east, also, the arms of the Saracens were found invincible.

Saracens victorious  
in the east.

They had passed the Tigris; Ctesiphon had fallen before them, and Yezdegerd, the Persian monarch, had been compelled to flee to the protection of the Turks. To these conquests, the invasion of Egypt succeeded. The rapid success of the Mahometans in this province is less wonderful, when we consider the divisions and hatred existing among the Chris-



tian sects at this period. The persecutions of the emperor of the east, had embittered the feelings of a large portion of his Egyptian subjects, who welcomed the Moslems as deliverers. Memphis submitted without resistance, and Alexandria was taken after a siege of fourteen months. The great library of that enlightened city was destroyed. The caliph, when petitioned to spare it, replied, "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree with it, they are pernicious and ought to be destroyed."

636.

Alexandria taken  
and the Library  
destroyed.

In the reign of the succeeding caliph, Othman, the Arabians extended their conquests into the province of Africa.

645.

Othman.

655.

Ali.

An insurrection resulted in the assassination of Othman; and Ali, the cousin of the prophet, and one of his first four proselytes, was now elected to the office. The pretensions of Ali, who married Fatima, a daughter of the prophet; and of his descendants, the Fatimites, are the origin of the discord which has ever existed between the Persians and Turks; the former espousing the interests of Ali, and the latter maintaining the equal sanctity of the three preceding caliphs. On the accession of Ali, the sceptre of the caliphs extended over the kingdoms of Persia, Syria, Arabia and Egypt. Yezdegerd, the last of the Persian monarchs, made an ineffectual attempt to recover his dominions. At the head of an army of Turks, he advanced into the empire of his ancestors, but betrayed by a servant and deserted by his allies, he was slain in attempting to escape; and the religion of the Magi was thenceforth in Persia to be displaced by that of Mahomet.

Religion of the Magi  
displaced by Ma-  
hometanism.

The empire of the Saracens continued to be weakened by internal dissensions and civil wars. Ali, though not engaged in the assassina-

Dissensions.

tion of Othman, reaped the advantages derived from his death, Moawiyah, son of Abu Sophian, of the family of Ommyyah, to cover his own ambitious purposes, resolved to avenge it. Amon, the viceroy of Egypt, espoused his cause, Moawiyah was declared caliph at Damascus, and at the head of a large army marched against Ali. After a sanguinary conflict, in which many thousand Moslems perished, a truce was effected between the rival caliphs. Meantime some enthusiasts in the temple of Mecca, planned the deliverance of the nation from these evils. Assassins were despatched to procure the death of Ali, Moawiyah, and Amon. But the lawful caliph was murdered, while Moawiyah and Amon escaped. Moawiyah succeeded to the caliphate, which was now changed into an hereditary office.

Moawiyah.

During the reign of the Ommyades, as the family of Moawiyah are termed, the lieutenants of the caliphs penetrated the deserts of Africa, and extended to Mount Atlas the terror of their arms. The Moorish tribes along the coast, after a short resistance, were conquered, converted, and adopted into the

Moors conquered.

Arabian family. The final subjugation of Africa was effected by Hassan, governor of Egypt, A. D. 709.

The Goths of Spain were in possession of the garrison of Ceuta, on the African side of the straits. Here the Saracens were at first repulsed, but the treachery of Count Julian, commander of the garrison, put them in possession of the fortress, and instigated them to the invasion of the Gothic kingdom of Spain. The obscure race of kings, who held sway over the monarchy founded by Adolphus in Spain, presents no name worthy of mention in history. A civil war had enabled Roderick, a noble Goth, to dethrone Witerza, the lawful king, and usurp the crown. It was at this period that the Saracens invaded the peninsula. Muca, the Saracen commander, listened to the proposals of Julian, entered Spain, and in a decisive battle at Xeres in Andalusia, established the Mahometan dominion. The princes and friends of

Witerza's family revolted, and joined the Mahometans, and Roderick, the last of the Goths, was drowned in the Guadalquivier. The Saracens pursued their march, and without encountering opposition, planted the standard of the prophet in the royal city of Toledo.

The Goths submitted to the victor, but were allowed the enjoyment of their own religion; and the dominion of the Saracens extended from the Mediterranean to the bay of Biscay.—Pelagius, a member of the royal family, finding it impossible to resist the conquerors, retired with a band of followers to the mountains of the Asturias, where he established a Christian kingdom, which in after ages reconquered the kingdom of the Saracens.

The ambition of the Arabian victors was not bounded by the Pyrenees. They advanced into Gaul. Charles Martel, now king of France, took the field against them. A memorable battle, which decided the future destiny of Europe, was fought between Tours and Poitiers. An immense multitude were slain, and the arms of the French acquired perpetual glory in the defeat of the Saracens. The Saracens retired to Spain, and it is considered a remarkable fact that they made no farther attack upon the northern nations.

In pursuing the victorious course of the Arabs westward, we have passed by their attempts upon Constantinople. Under the caliph Moawiyah, they menaced the capital of the eastern empire, attacked it in the summer, and retreated in the winter, for six successive years. At length they gave up the enterprise as hopeless, and a truce of thirty years was concluded. A second attempt upon the city, in 716, proved equally disastrous to the Moslems. The strength of Constantinople constituted for centuries the security of the empire. The Greek fire,\* with

\* The materials from which this fire was obtained, with the method of preparing and directing it against an enemy, are now lost. That it was an improvement in the military art, and of important benefit in the defence of Constantinople, there is no doubt; its use was for a long time confined to the Greeks, but was eventually discovered by the Saracens.

which, in both their attempts, the Moslems were repulsed, spread terror throughout their ranks.

The power of the caliph of Damascus was weakened by a formidable revolt. The family of Ommiyah had never been Mahometan factions. favourites with the Arabian people. Their early persecutions of the prophet, and the tardiness with which they embraced the faith, made them suspected by the devout. The descendants of Abi and Fatima had indeed abandoned their pretensions to the sovereignty, and by strict devotion to the observances of religion, had acquired great reputation for sanctity among their countrymen. The descendants of Abbas, the uncle of the prophet, were more aspiring in their views, and had secretly enlisted great numbers in their cause.

Through the regions of the east, the followers of the prophet were divided into factions, and the adherents of each designated by the adoption of a peculiar colour in their dress. The green was appropriated to the Fatimites; the white, to the Ommiades; and the black was assumed by the Abbassides. The contest of the white and the black faction could be terminated only by a civil war. Saffah, the chosen caliph of the Abbassides, and Merwan, the last of the Ommiades, led their armies to battle. Merwan was defeated, and the Abbassides triumphed in the east.

Abdallahman alone, of the royal family of Ommiyah, escaped. Spain received the fugitive, and established him on the throne of Cordova; where, for more than two hundred years, his descendants reigned. The dynasty of the Abbassides was established in the east, but the unity of the empire was destroyed. The seat of government was removed by the Abbassides to Bagdad. Under the reign of these princes, of whom Haroun al Raschid stands pre-eminent, learning was patronised, and the literature of Greece and Rome carried into the east.

785.

Haroun al Raschid.

## CHAPTER II.

### EASTERN EMPIRE, BRITAIN, FRANCE, ITALY.

#### SECTION I.

**EASTERN EMPIRE.**—Meanwhile the Byzantine emperors became utterly insignificant. Heraclius lived to see the Syrian province severed from his dominion, and Jerusalem in the hands of the Moslems. The successors of Heraclius, for a considerable period, present no name worthy of record; and the annals of the empire are marked with the intrigues, assassinations, and revolutions of the palace.

Justinian II. ascended the throne in 685. His vices and incapacity, produced general disaffection. Being deposed and expelled the kingdom, he retired to the neighbourhood of the Borysthenes, and obtaining the aid of the Bulgarians,

Justinian II.

returned after an absence of ten years, and recovered his throne. His cruelties again produced an insurrection, during which he was assassinated. With him perished the last of the race of Heraclius.—Between the death of Justinian II., and the establishment of the Isaurian dynasty, which commenced with Leo III., three emperors reigned in the space of six years.

Leo rose from an obscure origin, to the imperial throne, and administered the government twenty-four years. His

Leo III.

741.

Separation of the  
eastern and western  
churches.

reign is memorable as the commencement of the controversy respecting the worship of images, which was continued by his successor Constantine V. This dispute separated the eastern and western churches, and contributed to disengage Italy from all dependence upon the Greek or Byzantine empire.

781.

The empress Irene.

Image worship was, however, restored by an empress, who rendered herself peculiarly infamous by her crimes. Irene, a native of Athens, was the empress of Leo IV., and mother of Constantine VI. The death of Leo, while Constantine was but ten years of age, placed the imperial government in her hands. When Constantine arrived at maturity, she still wished to retain the power, and hence bitter enmity arose between the mother and the son. Ambition stifled every sentiment of nature and humanity, and the barbarous Irene deprived her son of his sight, and he languished many years in darkness.

After Irene had reigned five years, Nicephorus, her treasurer, seized the throne, and doomed her to exile in the island of Lesbos, where she earned a scanty subsistence by spinning.

BRITAIN, during this period, was disturbed by contests still continuing between the Saxons and its ancient inhabitants; although most of the island had submitted to the Saxon sway. The Saxons had established seven kingdoms, known as the Saxon Heptarchy, and between them there were also continual wars.

Saxon Heptarchy.

In FRANCE, the degenerate descendants of Clovis, still remained upon the throne. In the disorders consequent upon the weakness, or minority of these monarchs, the regency, or administration of government, was committed to the mayor of the palace, who combined the offices of judge, and of steward of the household. These mayors acquired such an extent of power, that the authority of the monarch was little more than nominal.

Mayors of the Palace.

Pepin Heristal succeeded in rendering the office hereditary in his

714.

Charles Martel.

family; and after governing twenty-eight years, was succeeded by his son Charles Martel.

It was during his administration, that the Saracens conquered France, from the Garonne to the Rhone. Charles collected his war-

732.

Battle of Tours.

rriors, and in the battle fought between Tours and Poitiers, which lasted seven days, he defeated the invaders, and recovered the provinces. This battle is considered one of the most important ever fought, as it influenced not only the destiny of France, but of all Europe, and put a check to the westward progress of the Mahometan religion.—Charles did not assume the name of king, but exercised the full power. He was succeeded in the mayoralty by his son Pepin, who, performing the functions, aspired to the title of sovereign.

Pepin.

The clergy favoured the claims of Pepin, who had restored to them the lands of which his father had dispossessed them; and the nobles, despising the weakness and imbecility of their nominal monarch, sought the protection of his power. Still the people knew not how to absolve themselves from the allegiance they had sworn to the lawful monarch. In this dilemma, the aid of Zachary, bishop of Rome, now known by the appellation of pope, was sought. Pepin inquired of the pope, "Whether a prince incapable of governing, or a minister invested with royal authority, and who supported it with dignity, ought to have the title of king." The interest of the Roman see favoured the pretensions of Pepin. The pope accordingly decided in his favour. The people were absolved from their allegiance, their consciences quieted, and Childeric III., the last of the Merovingian race, was deprived of his crown, and shut up in a monastery. Pepin was crowned king of France, at Soissons, by St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz.

Pepin was not unmindful of his obligations to the pope. In the wars with the Lombards, he espoused the cause of the pontiff, and finally annexed to the dominions of the Holy see, the exarchate of Ravenna and Pentapolis, while the kings of France were recognized as patriarchs of Rome.

After a reign of seventeen years, Pepin was succeeded by his sons,

768.

Charles and Carloman.

Charles and Carloman. The sovereignty of France could hardly be considered hereditary at this period, as the consent of the nobles was required to the accession of these princes. The death of Carloman, left Charles in possession of the whole kingdom.

## SECTION II.

This prince, early in his reign, gave indications of the qualities which, in that warlike age, gained him the name of

772.

Charlemagne.

Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He found a pretext for invading the kingdom of Lombardy, in the hostilities of Desiderius, the king of the country, against the pope. Charlemagne crossed the Alps; and Pavia, and Verona, successively fell before him. Lombardy was soon reduced to submission, and the king made captive. Charlemagne next visited Rome, where he was

received with every demonstration of joy, and hailed as the deliverer of the church.

With the Saxons, who inhabited the country extending from Bohemia to the German ocean, and from the Rhine to the Baltic, he was forced to maintain perpetual war. The Saxons had often been reduced to the necessity of paying tribute to the monarchs of France,

785.

Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.

but as often revolted from the yoke imposed upon them. Charlemagne, after thirty years of arduous warfare, reduced them to submission.

Witikind, a Saxon chief, renowned for his resistance, at length embraced Christianity, and resigned his arms. The aversion of the Saxons to the Christian religion, had increased their hatred of the Franks, and is considered the main cause of their revolt. The measures adopted by the conqueror for their conversion,

Saxons compelled to embrace Christianity.

appear to a modern mind well calculated to render their antipathy unconquerable. They were obliged, under penalty of death, to receive baptism, and

the most rigorous punishments marked the slightest deviation from the rites of the Catholic church.

Besides the subjugation of Germany, which Charlemagne effected, he carried his arms against the Huns and Slavonians, penetrated their dominions, and plundered their capital. In an expedition against

800.

Coronation of Charlemagne.

the Saracens of Spain, he annexed to his dominions the territory between the Pyrenees and the Ebro. He was crowned emperor of the west, at Rome, by Pope Leo III.

ITALY, in the commencement of this period, was divided between the kingdom of the Lombards, and the dependencies of the emperor of Constantinople. Venice was an independent state, and the dukedoms of Friuli, Spoleto, and Beneventum, were attached to the kingdom of the Lombards.

Although Rome was nominally governed by a duke, subject to the exarch of Ravenna, it already experienced the influence of the bishops in its temporal, as well as its spiritual affairs. Until the emperor Leo, the Isaurian, outraged the feelings of devout Catholics, by the proscription of image worship, the authority of the Byzantine court had been acknowledged in Rome. Gregory II., bishop of Rome, remonstrated; but finding his efforts for the removal of the edict ineffectual, he excited the people to vindicate the cause of religion. Rome and Ravenna revolted—all Italy flew to arms, and in retaliation, the statues of the emperors were broken. At Ravenna, the exarch, and many of the Iconoclasts, or image-breakers, were massacred.

These disorders presented to Luitprand, king of the Lombards, an

713.

Lombards attempt the conquest of all Italy.

opportunity of attempting the execution of his ambitious project of uniting all Italy to his kingdom. He took Ravenna, and subdued all the cities of the exarchate.

Gregory, jealous alike of the Lombards, and of the emperor, sent a

solemn embassy to obtain the aid of the French. Charles Martel received the ambassadors favourably, but furnished no immediate assistance. Meanwhile, Leo, Gregory, and Luitprand, had disappeared from the stage of action. The successors of Leo recovered Ravenna, and continued their persecution of image-worship; and the successors of Gregory, not less zealously resisted the imperial edicts.

Astolphus, now on the throne of Lombardy, renewed the war, again subdued Ravenna, and threatened Rome. Stephen III., then bishop of Rome, went in person to the court of Pepin, to solicit aid.

The French monarch embarked in his cause; and at the head of an army, marched into Italy. He compelled the

754.

Pepin presents the  
Lombard conquests  
to the Pope.

Lombards to relinquish their conquests, which he presented to the Pope. Thus, the exarchate became annexed to the Roman see.—This may be regarded as the first instance of a Christian bishop be-

ing invested with the prerogatives of a temporal prince.—It was in return for these donations, that Stephen anointed Pepin anew, conferring upon him and his sons the title of patrician, or protector of the Roman people.

The Greek emperor remonstrated against the proceedings of Pepin and of the pope, but in vain. The French monarch maintained that the dominions transferred to the jurisdiction of the pope, were his, by right of conquest from the Lombards, and no power should induce him to resume the gift he had bestowed upon the successors of St. Peter, as the bishops of Rome were styled.

The kingdom of the Lombards languished until twenty years after the expedition of Pepin, but his son Charlemagne, as we have seen, completed its conquest. Charlemagne affected to confirm the gift of his father to the Holy see, adding to it, all the cities and islands which had been annexed to the exarchate. Yet, during the life of Charlemagne, these dominions were dependent upon his power; and both Ravenna and Rome were numbered in the list of his metropolitan cities.

Rome had enjoyed a sort of independence, exercising the right of governing itself, for fifty years, when the pope, Stephen II., conferred on Pepin and his successors the title of patrician; thus transferring the power which the Greek emperors had nominally held, to the Carlovingian family.

## PERIOD IV.

COMPRISING EVENTS FROM THE

Coronation of { **THIRD EPOCHA, 800 A. D.** } Charlemagne.

TO THE



Commencement of { **FOURTH EPOCHA, 1100 A. D.** } the Crusades.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

##### SECTION I.

At the coronation of Charlemagne, the graceful Leo, after placing the crown upon his head, saluted him with the title of emperor of the Romans; and his claim to the empire of the west, was universally acknowledged. He received embassies from the monarchs of the east. Irene, the empress of Constantinople, implored his friendship; and even the caliph of Bagdad, the princely Haroun al Raschid, en-

800.

Charlemagne emperor of Rome.



tered into a correspondence with him, and gave him the keys of the holy sepulchre of Jerusalem. The barbarians of Charlemagne's court were astonished by the splendour of the caliph's presents, among which, with other works of art, was a clock.

The latter years of the reign of Charlemagne, were disturbed by the depredations of the Norman pirates. It is said, that when the emperor beheld their vessels in the Mediterranean, foreseeing the evils with which they threatened his subjects, he wept.

Charlemagne reigned after his coronation as emperor, fourteen years, when he died in the 71st year of his age, and left his vast dominions to his son Louis.—He is justly considered the greatest of barbarian monarchs, and his efforts to civilize and polish his subjects, confer the noblest praise upon his character. He is censured for the support he gave the Roman hierarchy, but from the manner in which the ceremony of crowning his son Louis was performed, it would seem that the emperor even then foresaw the claim to temporal power which the church would usurp, and prepared for resistance. He caused Lewis to raise the crown from the altar on which it had been placed, and put it on his own head, thus intimating that he received it only from God.

	Louis, surnamed "le Debonnaire," from his weakness, was ill
814.	qualified to sway the sceptre transmitted to him from
Louis	his warlike father—a sceptre which required, to
le Debonnaire.	wield it, all the energies of his father's powerful
	mind.

Louis early associated his three sons with himself, in the government of the empire.—Bernard, son of Pepin, Charlemagne's eldest son, had previously been placed on the throne of Italy. He now revolted, claiming that as the son of an elder brother, his right to the empire was superior to that of his uncle. Bernard was made prisoner by Louis, and condemned to the loss of his eyes, which loss he survived only three days.—Louis, seized with remorse for his cruelty to his nephew, impeached himself, and requested the church to condemn him to penance.—The clergy gladly seized this opportunity of humbling the civil power at the feet of the ecclesiastical.

Meanwhile, the birth of a son, Charles the Bald, by a second marriage, made Louis desirous of another division of his dominions, which should give this son an inheritance with his brothers. Lothario, his eldest, who was associated with him in the government of the empire, at first consented to a new division. He soon however repented, and joining his younger brothers, Pepin and Louis, to whom had been assigned the kingdoms of Aquitaine and Bavaria, the three openly rebelled against their father. The pope, Gregory IV., with a view of establishing the supremacy and independence of the Roman see, joined the party of Lothario. Louis was deposed, and Lothario proclaimed emperor in his stead. The unhappy monarch, a prisoner in the monastery at Soissons, was compelled to submit to the judgment of a council, which decreed that he should divest himself of his royal robes, and assume those of a penitent.

The conduct of Lothario could not win the affections of the nobility, who soon returned to their allegiance; Louis was taken from the convent, restored to the throne, and Lothario found himself obliged to submit at the feet of his injured father. He was forgiven, and permitted to retain the kingdom of Italy.

On the death of Louis, his sons turned the arms so often raised against their father, against each other. Pepin, to whom had been assigned Aquitaine, was dead, and his possessions had been given by his father to Charles the Bald. Lothario now, however, despite of the rights of Charles, and of Louis, grasped at the whole empire. His two brothers united against him, and the blood of thousands flowed to gratify their ambition, and the hatred of men, who should have shown to each other only kindness and affection.

The civil war was succeeded by a negotiation, in which a new division of the empire was made.—Lothario, with the imperial title, was left in possession of Italy, and of the countries between the Rhone and the Alps, the Meuse and the Rhine.—To Charles were assigned Neustria and Aquitaine, while Louis retained possession of Germany. The empire of Charlemagne, thus divided among his grandsons, continued under their successors to be subdivided, and to be the scene of contention and disorder.

The Normans, taking advantage of these disturbances, renewed their hostilities, and spread devastation in the dominions of Charles the Bald, even to the neighbourhood of Paris.

Lothario, the emperor, in his declining days, divided his dominions between his sons, and sought by retirement and penance, to expiate the sins of his former life. Louis, the eldest son of Lothario, succeeded to the imperial honours under the title of Louis II.

Louis of Germany governed his dominions with considerable ability. On his death, they were divided between his three sons. Carloman governed Bavaria; Louis, Saxony; and Charles, Suabia.—Louis II., emperor, and king of Italy, dying without sons, the pope espoused the interest of his uncle Charles the Bald, who received at his hands the imperial crown. In virtue of his authority as emperor, Charles was compelled to cross the Alps for the protection of Italy, which was now invaded by the Saracens, where he suddenly died.

## SECTION II.

The successors of Charles are little worthy of a place in history.

879.  
Louis III. and Carloman.  
884.  
Charles the Fat.

His son, Louis the Stammerer, reigned but a few months, and was succeeded by his two sons, Louis and Carloman. The death of these princes, while their brother, Charles the Simple, was yet a minor, transferred the crown of France to Charles the Fat, son of Louis the German king, who had inherited

the possessions of his brothers, and had already obtained the imperial crown. This monarch nearly reunited the empire of Charlemagne. His incapacity for sustaining its weight, was, however, soon conspicuous. The Normans again appeared, and laid siege

Normans besiege  
Paris.

to Paris. During this siege, which continued more than a year, wonderful exploits of valour are related

of Eudes, Count of Paris, and of his brother Robert. At length the emperor marched to the relief of the Parisians, but instead of giving the Normans battle, he hired them to depart, by promising them money. During the months occupied in raising the promised sum, the provinces were subjected to the continued depredations of the Normans. The subjects of Louis became indignant, and the spirit of rebellion broke forth from all ranks. Louis was deposed, and Charles the Simple, yet a minor, was declared king. Meanwhile,

888.

Count Eudes.

the valiant Eudes held the sovereign authority in trust. Germany revolted, and placed on the throne Arnold, an illegitimate descendant of Charlemagne.

Charles the Simple. Eudes died, A. D. 898, and Charles the Simple was left to govern in his own name.

France was now in a state of complete anarchy. Eudes, with all his valour and ability, had found himself unable to heal the disorders of the realm; while the weakness of Charles only increased the confusion. The nobles, though nominally yielding allegiance to the king, now exercised within their respective domains the rights of sovereign princes, and the realm of France was filled with the miseries arising from their continual depredations upon each other.

The Normans now renewed their hostilities, and spread devastation far and wide, plundering the churches, and carrying terror and dismay into the remotest parts of the country. Under the command of their celebrated chief, Rollo, they sailed up the Seine, and made

905.

Norman incursion  
under Rollo.

themselves masters of Rouen, which they fortified. Charles, unable to repel the invaders, consented to cede to them the province of Neustria, giving Rollo his daughter in marriage. The Norman chief was, however, to do homage to Charles.—The ceremony consisted in kneeling and kissing the king's toe. The haughty Norman, though willing to acknowledge the supremacy of the king of France, was displeased with the manner. At length, it was arranged that one of his officers should perform the ceremony in his name. His representative, as unwilling to stoop as his master, under pretence of carrying his majesty's foot to his mouth, overturned him in the presence of his court, and Charles, unable to revenge the insult, submitted to it in silence.

The Normans who settled in Neustria, which now received the name of Normandy, became converted to Christianity; and their prince, Rollo, shewed himself the ablest monarch of the time.

912.

Neustria called Nor-  
mandy.

Charles the Simple was dethroned by Robert, duke of France.

921.

Robert and Rodolph.

Robert, after a short reign, was succeeded by Rodolph, duke of Burgundy. The Carlovingian princes were restored to the throne, which they contin-

ued to occupy until 989, when Hugh Capet made himself monarch of France, and founded a new dynasty.

Meantime the Germans, disregarding the claims of Charles the Simple, at this time sovereign of France, determined to fill the imperial throne of Germany with one of their native princes. Five nations, each governed by their own laws, and their own dukes, the Franconians, the Saxons, the Swabians, the Bavarians, and Lorrainers, composed at this time the German confederation. Assembled in diet at Worms, the electors of these nations conferred upon Conrad, duke of Franconia, the imperial dignity.

Diet of Worms.

The reign of Conrad I. was disquieted by the rebellion of some of the powerful nobles of the empire, and by the irruptions of the Huns, who spread themselves over Pannonia, which from them received the name of Hungary. From thence they extended their ravages to the Baltic, passed the Rhine, desolated France and the northern part of Italy. Germany was, however, the scene of their most destructive inroads, and Conrad, unable to resist them, was reduced to the necessity of purchasing peace.

912.

Conrad I.

920.

Henry the Fowler.

On the death of Conrad, the electors raised Henry the Fowler, duke of Saxony, to the empire. He renewed the war with the Hungarians, and obtained a splendid victory over them, which, though it did not effectually subdue their power, freed the nation from their further depredations.

Otho I., his son and successor, completed their subjugation, and also carried on a war with the Bohemians, whom he compelled to pay tribute to the empire, and procured from the pope the title of emperor.

936.

Otho the Great.

## CHAPTER II.

### BRITAIN.

#### SECTION I.

While the successors of Charlemagne were engaged in perpetual hostilities, Britain was hardly less the scene of contention. After much bloodshed, the seven kingdoms which formed the Saxon Heptarchy, were united under one monarch, by Egbert, king of Wessex, the only surviving descendant of Hengist and Horsa. The country was thenceforth called England or the land of the Angles.

827.

Saxon Heptarchy  
united under Egbert.

The tranquillity of Egbert's reign was soon disturbed by the depre-

Invasion of the  
Danes.

dations of the Danes, or as they were sometimes called the Normans, or north-men, from their residence in the north. He encountered them in battle; and though he obtained two successive victories over them, still their ships brought new swarms to pour in upon the land. Under his successor, Ethelwolf, the nation suffered still more severely from their ravages, and the entire conquest of the island was threatened. They landed in great bodies, plundered and desolated the country, made prisoners of the inhabitants, and when attacked by the English, retreated with the booty to their ships.—A succession of three weak and inefficient princes, Ethelbald, son of Ethelwolf, and Ethelbert and Ethelred, his sons, was followed by the reign of Alfred, the younger son of Ethelwolf.

872.

Alfred the Great.

The various talents and virtues of this prince have justly acquired him the name of the Great. In his early youth, he had accompanied his father in a pilgrimage to Rome, and on his return visited Paris; thus gaining some insight into the characters and situations of other and more civilized nations. At the age of twelve, it is said, he was ignorant of the art of reading, an acquisition at that time rare, but delighting in Anglo-Saxon songs, he one day discovered in the hands of the queen Judith, a French princess whom his father had married, a written volume of his favourite poems. She promised the delighted boy that as soon as he could read the volume, he should possess it. He eagerly applied himself to the task, and the little prince soon obtained the valued trophy of his victory.

At the age of twenty he ascended the throne. The Danes were now more formidable than ever. Alfred gained some advantages over them, and they stipulated to retire; but receiving reinforcements, they violated their treaty. The young prince fought eight battles with them in one year, but again trusting to their promise of abandoning the island, he again found them treacherous. They swarmed upon the coast in greater numbers than before. The superstitious Saxons believed themselves abandoned by heaven, and in vain the undaunted Alfred sought to rally them.

Contests with the  
Danes.

He then took the habit of a peasant, wisely determining to reserve himself for better times. To make his disguise the more complete, he laid aside his princely bearing, as well as his regal robes, and with the dress and language of a rustic, he offered his services to a grazier, and faithfully tended the cows as they grazed. Once, it is said, when his mistress had desired him to watch and turn the cakes at the fire, his mind wandered to other things, and the good wife scolded him for permitting the cakes to burn. Yet, knowing his fault, he submitted patiently. He was beloved by the honest pair, whom he afterwards rewarded with gratitude. At length a Saxon chief, whose castle the Danes had besieged, made a sally, and took from the Danes what they superstitiously believed to be their enchanted banner. Alfred now seeing cause to hope for better days, put off the disguise of a

Alfred assumes the  
disguise of a peasant

Visits the Danish  
camp as a minstrel.

cow-herd, and took that of a wandering minstrel. With his harp upon his back, he sought the camp of the Danes, and while his music entertained them, they unsuspectingly suffered him to wander through every part of their camp. He remarked how security had made them careless, and observed their provoking haughtiness to his countrymen. Quitting the hostile camp, he revealed himself to his rejoicing subjects, who had thought him dead. They collected from all quarters, attacked the astonished Danes, and gained an easy but complete victory.—Alfred granted

The Danes conquer-  
ed.

them permission to settle in Northumberland and East Anglia, on condition of their being governed by his laws, and embracing Christianity. They were accordingly baptised, and Alfred himself stood godfather for Guthric their chief.

The civil and military institutions of Alfred, have acquired for him the admiration of posterity. The love of letters manifested in youth, continued through life; and burdened with the cares of government, and harrassed with vexatious wars, he yet found time, at the age of thirty-eight, to study the Latin language, and to write several works of reputation. He formed a system of jurisprudence, which is supposed to be the foundation of English common law. He established a navy, which is considered as the commencement of the greatest naval power the world ever witnessed; in short, it was Alfred who laid the foundation of the British monarchy. Nor do we find one act of inhumanity or vice, one habit of indolence or irregularity, to sully the fair fame of his public acts. He had fought fifty-six battles, but his wars were those of defence, and ever unstained by ambition or cruelty.

Alfred died in the 59th year of his age, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years. In his last years, he was again annoyed by new swarms of barbarians from the "northern hive."

## SECTION II.

The three immediate successors of Alfred were able princes, who held the reins of government with a firm hand.

901.

Edward the Elder.

These were, Edward, his son and successor, who maintained successful contests with the Danes;

925.

Athelstan.

Athelstan, natural son of Edward, who is renowned in history for the victories he obtained over these,

and other barbarians by whom the kingdom was assailed; and Edmund the elder, who conquered Northumberland from the Britons and bestowed it on Malcolm, king of Scotland, on condition that he should do homage to him, and defend the northern frontier from the Danes. The reign

940.

Edmund I.

948.

Edred.

of Edred, his brother and successor, is memorable for the establishment of monasteries in England.—Dunstan,\* abbot of Glastonburg, possessed great influence with this superstitious monarch.

Edred left the throne to Edwy, a young prince of seventeen, elegant in his person, and ardent in his affections.

985.

Edwy.

The beautiful young Elgiva, his second cousin, had captivated his youthful heart, and he married her, contrary to the decree of the church which forbade marriage between persons of this degree of affinity.

Denounced by Dun-  
stan.

Dunstan denounced and insulted him; and he boldly banished the monk from the realm. But the spirit of fanaticism, (the prevailing spirit of the age), was on the side of the church. Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, tore Elgiva from her husband, and caused her face to be scarred with a red hot iron, to destroy that beauty which as they supposed had ensnared the king. The hapless wife escaped from the cruel hands of her persecutors, and was returning to her husband. They retook the fugitive, murdered her; and dethroned the wretched Edwy; who, forsaken by his subjects, and excommunicated by the relentless clergy, soon rested from his sorrows in death.

Edgar a boy of thirteen, brother to Edwy, succeeded him; and

959.

Edgar.

Dunstan, who had now returned, took the government in the name of the young prince. Edgar, as he grew to manhood, saw the difficulty of his situation, and in reality proved the master spirit of his kingdom; but his character presents us with greatness without virtue. Flattering the monks, he preserved their favour; and unrestrained by moral principle, he violated, in the pursuit of pleasure, all laws, human and divine. He built and supported a powerful navy, and dividing it into three squadrons, he commanded each to make by turns the circuit of his dominions, thus keeping the seamen in practice, and intimidating the Danes. Edgar married for his second wife, Elfrida, the beautiful daughter of a nobleman.†

\* This monk concealed great ambition under the cloak of sanctity. The ignorance and credulity of those times cannot be better illustrated than by the stories which he made the people believe. In his miserable cell, the devil, affronted, it seems, by the holy mortifications of the saint, annoyed him by frequent conflicts. At length, he came, one day, in the shape of a woman. St. Dunstan seized him by the nose with a pair of red hot pincers. Satan roared and bellowed, and after this, never dared show his face to St. Dunstan again.

† The fame of her beauty had reached the monarch, and he sent Ethelwold, his favourite, to see if her charms deserved the praise bestowed upon them. Ethelwold, enamoured of her himself, falsely told his master that reports had exaggerated her beauty—but that she was a rich heiress, and would be a desirable match for himself. Edgar promoted the union. Afterwards, suspecting the treachery, he determined to visit the castle of Ethelwold. The distressed husband confessed to his wife the fault his passion had led him to commit, and besought her to conceal her beauty as much as possible. But the ambitious Elfrida was careful to attire herself in the most becoming manner. The monarch was charmed, slew the husband with his own hand, and married Elfrida. She who had thus connived at the destruction of her husband, carried dissension and disaster into the royal family.

On the death of Edgar, Edward, his son by his first marriage, was raised by Dunstan to the throne, in opposition to the wishes of Elfrida, who desired her own son, Ethelred, to receive the crown. He obtained the surname of the martyr; for the wicked Elfrida soon caused him to be murdered; thus securing the crown for Ethelred, her son.

975.

Edward II.

978.

Ethelred.

The Danes, with fresh hopes and recruited strength, now entered his dominions in swarms; and the weak prince gave them money to depart. This was but an acknowledgment of weakness, and a lure to his enemies.

Invasion of the  
Danes.

As if to add yet another inducement to the myriads of the northern hive, the weak and cruel son of Elfrida gave orders for a general massacre of all the Danes in his dominions; and the order was executed with the most barbarous inhumanity. Among the number was Gunilda, the sister of Sweyn, the powerful king of Denmark—a

1002.

Massacre of the  
Danes.

Christian princess, married to a nobleman of England. The mother was made to witness the dying agonies of her children, who were put to death before her face; after which she herself was inhumanly slain.

The news of this barbarity enkindled the fierce wrath of Sweyn.

1013.

Sweyn expels Ethel-  
red.

He collected a formidable armament, landed in the west of England, carrying fire and sword through the land. The timid Ethelred fled to Robert, duke of Normandy, (whose sister Emma he had married,) and received protection. Sweyn died before he had time to establish himself in his conquered dominions. Ethelred returned to England, but found in Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn, a powerful adversary. The death of Ethelred, left his eldest son, Edmund, called the Ironside, to carry on the war.\*

Edmund, though brave, found himself unable to resist the warlike

1016.

Edmund II.

Divides the kingdom  
with Canute.

Danes, surrounded, as he was, by the treacherous machinations of his own subjects.—He was defeated in a battle at Assington, in Essex; after which a treaty was concluded between the hostile monarchs. Canute received the northern part of the kingdom, while Edmund was left in possession of the south. But this monarch, worthy of a better fate, was assassinated by two of his rebellious subjects, who were in the interest of Canute; who thus obtained

1017.

Canute I.

the sovereignty of the entire kingdom.

\* Ethelred had two younger sons, Alfred and Edward, who were carried into Normandy and there protected by the duke, their uncle.



## CHAPTER III.

## GERMANY.

## SECTION I.

Otho I. succeeded his father, Henry the Fowler, on the throne of Germany. He was immediately involved in a struggle with the powerful nobles of his kingdom, who openly aspired to independence. He made war upon the duke of Bavaria, and expelled him from his dominions.—Otho sought also to balance the power of his nobles, by conferring upon the clergy the rights of temporal princes.—After he had restored the internal tranquillity of his dominions he engaged in war with Hungary and Bohemia. The latter kingdom he rendered tributary to Germany, and compelled the inhabitants to embrace Christianity. He encountered the Hungarians near Augsburg, and was victorious. After the deliverance of his kingdom from the inroads of this nation, Otho revived the project of his predecessor in the design of re-uniting Italy to the German empire, and of obtaining from the pope the imperial crown.

Since the extinction of the empire of Charlemagne, Italy had been governed by native princes engaged in frequent hostilities with each other, and the realm was divided by powerful factions.

The aid of Otho was implored against Berengius II., one of the princes, who had rendered himself odious by his tyranny. Otho marched into Italy, subdued Berengius, made himself master of his kingdom, deposed the licentious Pope, John XII., who had espoused the interest of his enemy, and elected Leo VIII. in his place. Otho determined to set the civil above the ecclesiastical power, and established a decree that he and his successors should have the power of naming the pope, and of giving investiture to bishops.

On the return of Otho to Germany, his Italian subjects again revolted, and on the death of Leo, contested the right of the emperor to nominate his successor. His arms, however, again compelled submission; after which his reign was tranquil.

Otho I. was succeeded by his son, Otho II., who during the life of his father had been associated with him in the government of the empire. By a marriage with Theophania, daughter of the eastern emperor, he obtained a claim to the Grecian provinces of Italy.—During his reign, the most disorderly and turbulent proceedings were witnessed at Rome, where at one time three several popes were elected, each anathematizing and excommunicating the others.

Otho III. was a minor at the time of his father's death. The Italians rebelled; and under Crescentius, a natural son

983. of one of the popes, who took the title of consul, an

Otho III. attempt was made to re-establish the republic.

But the degenerate Romans had no longer the virtue to remain free, even if a leader of talents had been at their head. Otho, when he became of age, soon quieted the disturbances made by the party of Crescentius, and restored pope Gregory whom they had deposed.

This emperor defeated the Danes, and entered into an alliance with Eric, who then swayed the sceptre of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark; obtaining permission for Christian missionaries to enter his kingdom. He also expelled the Saracens from the south of Italy, where they made frequent ravages. On the death of Otho III. without heirs, several claimants of the imperial crown appeared.

Henry II., grandson of Otho II., obtained the election, and received the imperial crown, at the hands of the pope, Bene-

1002. dict VIII.—The reign of this monarch is marked

Henry II. by no important event. It is said, that, disgusted

with the world, he expressed a desire to retire to a monastery, and assumed the monastic habit. The abbot received him as a brother,

Retires to a monas- but remarked, "Monks owe obedience to their su-  
tery. periors, I order you to continue at the helm of gov-  
ernment." Henry obeyed his superior, and reas-  
sumed his crown.

## SECTION II.

The death of Henry II. without an heir, left the succession again to be contested. An assembly of princes, after six

1024. weeks deliberation, gave the crown to Conrad, sur-

Conrad the Salic. named the Salic, duke of Franconia. During his reign, the kingdom of Burgundy was annexed to the German empire. Conrad successively quelled rebellions of the Poles and of the Italians.

He was succeeded by his son, Henry III., who found himself engaged, in the commencement of his reign, in wars with

1039. the Poles, Hungarians, and Bohemians, in all of

Henry III. which, success followed his arms.—Henry extend-

ed the prerogatives of the crown, and exercised a more absolute power than any German monarch. His nobles murmured, and after his death their enmity was shown to his son and successor, Henry

IV., and was manifested in the course of the famous

1056. war with the popes, called the war of the investitures.

Henry IV. The former emperors had exercised the power of

War of the investi- nominating bishops and abbots, and of giving them  
tures. investiture by the ring and crosier. Pope Alexan-

der II. had published a decree during the life of

Henry III. forbidding this investiture, and the doctrine was now maintained, that as the spiritual power was superior to the temporal, the

bishops and abbots received their power from God, and not from the emperor.

The famous Hildebrand, with the title of Gregory VII., now in the papal chair, resolving to extend the prerogatives of the church to their utmost limits, despatched a legate to the German emperor, forbidding him to exercise the rights of investiture. Henry treated this messenger with contempt, convoked an assembly of his princes and ecclesiastics, and declared Gregory an usurper of the papacy. Gregory, aware of the disaffection of the German nobles, proceeded to a sentence of excommunication against Henry, absolving his subjects from their allegiance, and depriving him of his imperial authority. The German nobles, thus encouraged, revolted, and the German clergy, who had just before declared Gregory an usurper, now espoused his cause.

Henry, surrounded with dangers, saw no safety but in appeasing the wrath of the pope. With this view, he passed the Alps, and accompanied by only a few domestics, proceeded to Canosna, where Gregory then was, and presented himself as a penitent, at the gates of the fortress.—The monarch was admitted within the outer court. But there, wrapped in sackcloth, with his feet bare, he was detained three days in the month of January, before the haughty pontiff would admit him to his presence. The penance of Henry, and his promise to submit, in all things, to the authority of the pope, procured him absolution.

The reconciliation, however, was short; the arrogance of the pope had alienated the minds of the Italian princes, and a strong party was formed in Henry's favour.—He now renewed the war, but while he engaged the Italians against the pope, the Germans revolted. A second excommunication was thundered against him, he was again deposed, and Rodolph, duke of Suabia, was declared emperor. Henry, on his part, augmented his party in Germany, and convening a few bishops who adhered to him, degraded Gregory, and appointed another pope. The hostile Germans met near Mersbourg; Rodolph was defeated and slain, and his followers dispersed. Henry, triumphant over his enemies in Germany, turned to Italy, laid siege to Rome, and continued it for two years, when, at length, the city was carried by assault. Gregory escaped, and Henry procured the consecration of Clement III. After the emperor's return to Germany, his enemies deposed Clement, and elected Victor, whose early death made way for Urban II. He renewed the war of the investiture, and embroiled Henry in a quarrel with his son, Conrad, whom he incited to rebellion. This brings the history of Germany to the period when the council of Clermont decided upon the first crusade.

ITALY.—When on the death of Charles the Fat, the empire of the west passed from the Carlovingian family, the government of Italy was usurped by the principal nobles. Of these, the dukes of Spoleto and Tuscany, and the Marquises of Pavia, Susa and Friuli, were the most powerful. The great duchy of Benevento, had been divided

into the principalities of Benevento, Salerno and Capua. Apulia and Calabria were still subject to the emperor of the east, Naples and Amalfi were republics, under the protection of the Grecian empire. Rome was subject to the pope. For seventy years the crown of Italy was the subject of contest between the most ambitious and powerful nobles. The kingdom was in a state of complete anarchy. The

936.

northern parts were desolated by the Hungarians, while the southern coasts were subject to the inroads of the Saracens, who had made themselves masters of Sicily.

The assistance of Otho, emperor of Germany, was sought. He marched into Italy, received at the hands of the pope the imperial crown, and revived in his person the title of emperor of the Romans, which had been extinct for forty years. Those parts of Italy which had been annexed to the Lombard monarchy, and had acknowledged the authority of the Carolingian princes, were re-united to the empire. Otho, and his immediate successors, exercised the prerogatives with which the emperors of the west had formerly been endowed. They repeatedly, as we have seen, marched into Italy at the head of their armies, received the homage of the Italian states, exacted their rents, and promulgated their laws.—Yet, the tie which bound Italy to the German empire, was continually weakening. The distance of the emperor prevented the continued and energetic exercise of the imperial prerogative; and a spirit of freedom was enkindled in the cities.

The dangers with which they were surrounded, compelled the inhabitants of the towns to prepare for their own defence, and permission was obtained for rebuilding the walls of the cities. The protection they thus afforded, drew multitudes of the country people within them. The population and wealth of the cities rapidly increased. Obedience to the dukes, counts or marquises, was thrown off, and the cities elected their own magistrates. The war of the investitures, in which the cities engaged, part of them on the side of the emperor, part on that of the pope, showed these little communities their importance and contributed to diffuse a republican spirit. In Lombardy,

Italian Republics. Milan was the most important of these independent governments. There existed at this period, still older republics, which had arisen from the ruins of the Grecian possessions—Venice, Ravenna, Genoa, and Pisa. Venice had never been conquered by the Lombards, nor ever acknowledged the authority of Charlemagne.

The south of Italy, which, in comparison with the north, had remained in tranquillity, experienced in the eleventh century, an important revolution. Impelled by a spirit of devotion, perhaps, mingled with that love of enterprise which so strongly characterized the nation, great numbers of the Normans visited Italy as pilgrims. Early in the eleventh century, many of them were employed by a prince of Salerno, against the Saracens, who invaded his territories. Fresh adventurers from the north flocked into Italy, where they founded the small city of Aversa near Capua. Their valour was profitably em-

ployed by the Greeks in a war with the Saracens of Sicily. A difficulty respecting their pay, at length produced a war between the Normans, and their employers. They invaded Apulia, which they soon subdued. After the conquest of the Grecian possessions of Italy, the republics of Gaeta, Naples and Amalfi, fell before the invaders. The sovereignty of Apulia, was conferred upon Robert Guiscard, who, with several of his brothers, had become renowned in these wars.

1054.

War with the Normans.

The pope, Leo IX., formed a league with the emperor of Constantinople, against the Normans, and Leo marched in person against Robert, but was defeated and taken prisoner. The devotion of the Normans dictated the most honourable treatment of the head of the church, and the warriors knelt to implore his forgiveness, for arming in their own defence.—The pope granted them absolution, and conferred upon them the sovereignty of the country they had conquered, which they now held as a fief of the Holy see.

Roger, the brother of Robert Guiscard, turned his arms against Sicily, and before the close of the eleventh century, had made himself master of the island. The ambition of Robert was not satisfied with the sovereignty of Apulia and Calabria.

He directed his views towards the eastern empire. At the head of his Normans, he advanced into Epirus, took the city of Durazzo, and obtained a splendid victory over the army of the Greek emperor, Alexius Comnenus. His successes in Greece, however, were of no permanent advantage. Robert was recalled to Italy by the revolt of some of the cities of Apulia.—In the war of the investitures, he afforded powerful aid to the pope, Gregory VII., and at length gave him an asylum, when driven from Rome.

Normans victorious over the Greek emperor.

## CHAPTER IV.

FRANCE, ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, SPAIN, RUSSIA, GREEK EMPIRE, AND THE CALIPHS.

### SECTION I.

FRANCE.—The princes of the Carlovingian family had become so insignificant, and the ties which bound the nation to its monarch were so slight, that the accession of Hugh Capet, the founder of a new dynasty, was hardly considered as an usurpation, and was attended with no disorder. Charles, duke of Lorraine, the legitimate heir, made an effort to obtain the throne, but failed in the attempt. Hugh, after a reign of eight years, transmitted the sovereignty to his son, Robert, whom he had already associated with himself in the government.

987.

Hugh Capet.

Robert was undisturbed by foreign foes, but the terrific power exercised at this time by the Roman see, blasted his domestic happiness. He had married Bertha, sister of Rodolph, king of Burgundy, his cousin in the fourth degree, while the prohibition of the church extended to the seventh.

Gregory V. ordered the dissolution of the marriage, under pain of excommunication. The king ventured to disregard the thunders of the Vatican,\* aimed not only at him but against all those who had abetted the offence; and the bishops who had sanctioned the marriage, were suspended.

Excommunicated by  
the pope.

Robert soon experienced the terrific power of excommunication on the minds of men. His courtiers and servants abandoned him. Two domestics, whose fidelity to their master triumphed over their fears, remained, but even these, in horror, lest guilt should accrue from the touch of vessels or food which had been polluted by an excommunicated person, purified by fire the vessels used by the unfortunate prince, and threw the food remaining in them to the dogs. The weak monarch, instead of arousing to the defence of his rights, at length repudiated his wife. Robert was succeeded by his son, Henry I.

Henry's reign was disturbed by domestic conspiracies; and he sought aid of Robert, duke of Normandy, who re-established him upon the throne. In reward for this service, Henry added to his duchy, Chaumont, Pontoise, and other places which belonged to the crown.

Henry was succeeded by his son, Philip I. During the minority of this prince, who was only eight years old when his father died, the regency was committed to the pious and dignified Baldwin, earl of Flanders, who preserved the peace of the nation, by being always ready for war. Philip was on the throne of France, at the time when the council of Clermont decided on the first crusade.—He was excommunicated by Urban II. for his licentiousness.

1031.

Henry I.

1060.

Philip I.

## SECTION II.

ENGLAND.—On the assassination of Edmund Ironside, Canute as we have seen, acting on the principle so universal among the ambitious, that "might makes right," seized the inheritance of Edwin and Edward, the sons of Edmund, and made himself sole monarch of England.† Canute sent back a part of his followers into Denmark, and

1017.

Canute I.

\* The palace of the popes at Rome is called the Vatican.

† Canute was, however, too politic, not to perceive that something must be done, to satisfy the prejudices of the English. He therefore paid his court to Emma, widow of Harold; and her brother Robert of Normandy favouring his suit, the queen gave him her hand. He promised to restore her sons to their right, but in the meantime, sent them to Sweden, with a private request that the king should dispatch them. He

1036.

Harold and Hardicanute.

restored the Saxon laws and customs. After which he returned to Denmark, and achieved the conquest of Sweden and Norway. Harold and Hardicanute successively obtained the crown of England.

On the death of the latter, the English threw off the Danish yoke, and recalled Edward, from his piety, surnamed the Confessor. He was the son of Ethelred, and brother of Edmund Ironside, who had been under the protection of his maternal uncle, the duke of Normandy. The reign of Edward was disturbed by rebellions among his nobility, some of whom openly aspired to the crown.

1042.

Edward the Confessor.

The death of Edward the Confessor, left the succession to the English throne open to contention. Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironside, and William, duke of Normandy, who was a kinsman of Edward on his mother's side, each presented claims to the crown.

1066.

Harold II.

Before, however, the rights of either were decided, Harold, a powerful nobleman, usurped the sovereignty, and obtained the allegiance of the nation.

But the usurper was soon disturbed from an unexpected quarter.

William, duke of Normandy, a prince distinguished for courage, ambition, and military skill, had, as has been observed, pretensions to the crown of England. His court was thronged by youth eager for military enterprise. Besides his own subjects, France, Flanders, and Germany furnished him with levies for his meditated invasion of England.

In the meantime, Harold was in the north, where he had just defeated the forces of the king of Norway, who had invaded his kingdom, when he heard that William had landed at Hastings with a powerful army. Elated with his recent victory, he hastened to the south. Deaf to the remonstrances of his ablest advisers, he ventured his kingdom, though with an inferior force, upon the success of a single battle, of which Hastings was the scene. This battle deprived Harold of his throne and his life, and gave to William the sovereignty of England, and the title of the Conqueror.

Battle of Hastings.

William, after his victory, proceeded to London, but before he reached the city, he was met by a deputation of the nobility, accompanied by Edgar Atheling, requesting his acceptance of the crown. His coronation soon after took place, and within six months from the battle of Hastings, he had so established his authority, and tranquillized the kingdom, that he ventured to re-visit Normandy. His absence, and the rapacity of his army, soon produced a revolt.—William hastened to return, and found himself obliged to withstand

1066.

William the Conqueror.

would not commit so inhuman an act, but sent them to Hungary, to be educated in the court of Solomon, then king of that country. He kindly protected them, gave to Edward his sister in marriage, and to Edwin, his sister in law, Agatha, daughter of the German Emperor, Henry II. Edward had no issue; Edwin and Agatha had three children, Edgar Atheling, Margaret and Constance. The first two will hereafter appear in the history.

an insurrection headed by the most powerful nobles of the realm, and aided by the kings of Scotland and Denmark. He crushed these rebellions, and found pretences to enrich his Norman followers by bestowing upon them the estates of the rebels.

William the Conqueror introduced the feudal system\* into England, dividing the kingdom into large landed estates, or baronies, which were distributed among the Normans, and held as fiefs of the crown, imposing on the holder of the lands, the obligation of the feudal tenure,—submission to the sovereign, and the bringing to the field, when called on, a certain number of military followers. The English, during this reign, were every where oppressed, and none of the natives were permitted to hold baronies of the first rank.

On the death of William, his dominions were divided among his sons. England was the portion of William Rufus. 1087. His continental possessions were divided between William Rufus. the two younger sons, Robert and Henry, Robert receiving the larger share. Wars between these brothers followed. At length, Robert imbibed the enthusiastic spirit of the crusades, and resolving to devote himself to the holy enterprise, mortgaged Normandy to his brother William, for a sum of money sufficient to enable him to embark against the infidels for the restoration of the holy sepulchre.

SCOTLAND.—The inhabitants of the northern part of Britain, known as the ancient Caledonians, were never conquered by the Romans, though they employed the arms of some of their most skilful commanders against them. In the fifth century, when the island was abandoned, and the Britons were left to their independence, we find in the northern parts, two powerful and distinct tribes; the Picts and the Scots. The Picts are supposed to be the descendants of the ancient Britons, who in the Roman conquests chose to migrate northward rather than to submit. They inhabited the eastern, while the Scots, supposed to be of the same origin with the Irish, occupied the western coast of the island.† These nations were continually at war with each other, and with the

\* The feudal system is traced by some writers to the Lombards, at the time of their seizing Italy, A. D. 568. The king divided the conquered land among his chief captains, on the condition of their doing homage to him, and bringing to the field a stipulated number of followers, whenever he needed their aid. These chief officers, after keeping what was necessary for their own use, divided the remainder of the land assigned by the king, each among his own favourites who were to furnish soldiers to the chief officers, as they were to the sovereign. This system was formed to subvert the purposes of ambitious rulers, and was adopted into the other countries of Europe. At first the grantor of the lands had power to resume them, but afterwards, the grants were for life, and at length became hereditary.

† This people are often spoken of as descended from the Celts; their language is spoken of as the Celtic, or sometimes the Gaelic. The learned are at variance respecting the Celts; some maintaining them to be the same people as the Goths; others assigning them a different origin. Julius Cæsar found in Gaul a people whom he called Celts. Their history is obscure. Some suppose that Cæsar referred to the Belgic Gauls. All, I believe, agree that the only remains of this people, now discoverable, are found in Ireland, and the western part of the island of Great Britain.



inhabitants of South Britain, who at last, unable to withstand their depredations, called in, as we have seen, the aid of the Saxons. These obscure contests of the Picts and Scots were at length closed in 842, by the elevation of a prince named Kenneth McAlpine, to the throne of both kingdoms. From this time, it is said, the country received the name of Scotland. His descendants are supposed to have filled the Scottish throne for a long period; but the history of the nation is at this time involved in obscurity.

842.

Kenneth McAlpine.

1033.

Duncan.

Macbeth.

1039.

Malcolm.

In 1033, Duncan succeeded to the crown, but fell by the hand of Macbeth, who usurped his throne. Malcolm, the son of Duncan, took refuge in England, where he was hospitably received by Edward the Confessor. By the assistance of the Duke of Northumberland, whom Edward sent into Scotland, Malcolm recovered his kingdom. During the remainder of Edward's reign, the two nations remained in peace. On the accession of Harold to the English throne, Malcolm favoured the insurrections against him. After the conquest of England by William, many of the noble Saxons fled to his court. Among them, were Edgar Atheling, and his sister Margaret, a virtuous, beautiful, and accomplished princess. The monarch of the Scots made her his queen, and she exerted a most happy influence, labouring for the instruction of the barbarous Scots, and relieving the distresses of her Saxon countrymen.—During the reign of William Rufus, Malcolm was frequently engaged in hostilities, and was finally slain in battle.

The children of Malcolm being minors, his brother, Donald Bane, usurped the throne, and Scotland was for some years embroiled in civil war, but at length, Edgar, the third son of Malcolm, obtained the crown.

1093.

Donald Bane.

### SECTION III.

SPAIN.—It will be recollected that after the conquest of Spain by the Saracens and Moors, some of the Christian inhabitants fled to the mountains of the north, where they founded the kingdom of the Asturias, or of Leon and Oviedo. From this kingdom, the very insignificance of which long proved its security, sprung other kingdoms, which eventually subverted the Mahometan power on the peninsula.

The descendants of the powerful Abderhaman, had undermined their own strength by their frequent dissensions, and about the commencement of the tenth century, his family became extinct, and the kingdom of Cordova was divided into separate provinces; or petty kingdoms, over which the principal nobles assumed the sovereignty.

The Christian dominions in Spain, had also, at this time, become enlarged by encroachments upon the Moors, and the kingdoms of Leon, Castile, Navarre, and Arragon, had each its respective monarch.

Sancho III., or the Great, united in his person the sovereignty of

Spain united under  
Sancho the Great,  
and Ferdinand, into  
one kingdom.

Navarre and Arragon; and his son and successor, Ferdinand, added to his dominions Castile and Leon, so that the whole of Christian Spain was, at this time, under the government of one monarch.

The war with the Moors was now renewed and prosecuted with success. Alphonso VI., the successor of Ferdinand, recovered the city of Toledo. The wars between the Christians and Moors, in this century, are memorable for the display of valour and chivalry. The most eminent of the Spanish knights, whose exploits have descended to posterity glowing with all the romance of the age, was the Cid.—Leading a valiant band of knights, the hero carried the Christian arms into many of the Mahometan kingdoms, and reduced to the subjection of his master, Alphonso, New Castile and Valencia.

Alphonso VI.

The Cid.

RUSSIA.—It was during this period that we first meet in history, the name of Russians. In the ninth century, they appeared at Constantinople, as traders, and exchanged their slaves, furs, honey, and the hides of their cattle, for the corn, wine, oil, manufactures, and spices of Greece.

Russians first known  
in history.

The luxury and splendour of Constantinople excited the desires of the barbarians, and piratical expeditions were immediately commenced. Their vessels, descending the Borysthenes, penetrated the Euxine, and spread desolation through the province of Anatolia. At length, the adventurous Russians menaced Constantinople. In their first enterprise they entered the port during the absence of the emperor, Michael. A tempest destroyed their ships, and compelled them to retreat.

Russians threaten  
Constantinople.

Afterwards Nicephorus, emperor of Constantinople, instigated Swatoslaus, prince of the Russians, to undertake the conquest of the Bulgarians. The Russian prince achieved the conquest, and then gave indication of his dangerous vicinity to the Greeks. At the head of his barbarians, he invaded the empire, and Nicephorus found himself unable to cope with the enemy he had brought upon the empire. His successor, John Zimisces, was more successful. He obtained splendid victories over the Russians, drove them out of the empire, and pursued Swatoslaus to Dristza, a post to which he had retreated on the Danube. Here he besieged him, and compelled him to capitulate, but permitted him and the remnant of his followers to return to their nation.

Russians invade the  
Greek empire.

Olga, the mother of Swatoslaus, was a princess of uncommon character. She had early embraced Christianity, and received baptism from the patriarch of Constantinople. Her zealous efforts to Christianize her barbarous subjects, had, however, proved ineffectual; even her son Swatoslaus having rigidly adhered to the ancient religion. Yet the example and influence of Olga were not without effect. Her grandson, Vlodimir, on his marriage with Anna, a princess of Constantinople, renounced idolatry and embraced the Christian faith. The efforts of Olga to civilize her subjects, evinced a mind far in advance of the age in

Olga.

which she lived, and Vlodimir pursued the course marked out by her.

**GREEK EMPIRE.**—Irene, renowned as the restorer of image worship, and for the inhuman cruelty exercised towards her son, was on the throne of Constantinople, at the commencement of this period. The imperial crown was usurped by Nicephorus I., and Irene, as has been related, banished to Lesbos. From this period the Byzantine, or Greek empire, hastening to its decline, and exerting little influence in the politics of growing nations, presents a succession of sovereigns, but few of whom deserve a name in a brief sketch of history.

Basil, the Macedonian, was founder of a new dynasty, and by

867.

Basil.

969.

Phocas.

Zimisce.

a rigorous reign restored in some measure the falling honour of the empire, and rendered it formidable to the barbarians and Saracens. The reigns of Nicephorus Phocas, and of his successor, John Zimisce, are signalized by the revival of the military spirit. John Zimisce conquered the Russians, penetrated Syria, and recovered Antioch from the Saracens. Zimisce carried the war still further, passed the Euphrates, and made himself master of many Saracen cities. After these successes, the empire sunk into insignificance, under the government of weak and effeminate princes.

In the reign of Michael VI., the last of the race, the Greeks awoke

1056.

The Comneni.

to a sense of their degradation, and invested Isaac Comnenus with the imperial purple. The Comneni were an illustrious family, of Roman origin. Isaac, who was first raised to the imperial dignity, enjoyed his elevation but two years, his declining health inducing him to abdicate.

Alexius, the third son of John Comnenus, who had refused the

1081.

Alexius Comnenus.

sceptre, filled the Byzantine throne, at the period of the first crusade. Dangers surrounded the empire on every side. The provinces of the east had been conquered by the Turks, while the Greek possessions in Italy had been usurped by the Normans, who were advancing to his capital. Alexius found himself without soldiers, and with an exhausted treasury, yet compelled to maintain a contest with powerful enemies. He made the best preparations in his power, for war; assembled an army, and marched into Epirus, to meet the Normans, who, under Robert Guiscard, had laid siege to Durazzo. The event of the battle which ensued was unfortunate. Alexius was defeated and compelled to flee. Yet, amid all his calamities, he showed himself a brave and able prince.

Defeated by the  
Normans.

The conquests of the Normans were stayed by the return of Robert to Italy. His son, Bohemond, to whom was committed the direction of the war with Alexius, was unable to defend his conquest, and returned to Italy. Robert restored tranquillity to his Italian dominions, and resumed his eastern enterprise. Alexius had enlarged and improved the naval forces of the empire, and now disputed with the

Norman chief, the dominion of the sea. Three engagements took place near the island of Corfu; the third resulting in a victory to the Normans. But the death of Robert, who fell a victim to an epidemical disease, relieved the empire from its most formidable enemy.

Naval engagements  
with the Normans.

The princess Anna Comnena, the daughter of Alexius, has rendered her name renowned by a history of her father's reign.

Anna Comnena.

## SECTION IV.

### EMPIRE OF THE CALIPHS.

At the commencement of this period, Haroun Al Raschid, the sixth of the Abassides, was sovereign of the caliphate of Bagdad, which had now attained its utmost splendour. The empire of Haroun was more extensive, his power more absolute, and his court more splendid, than that of any other monarch of his age. While he was the patron of arts and literature, his victorious arms spread terror through the west. On his death, the succession was disputed between his sons, and a civil war ended in the elevation of the youngest, Al Mamour, to the caliphate. Al Mamour was also distinguished as the patron of arts and letters. In his reign, the volumes of Grecian science were translated into the Arabic language, and every facility and encouragement afforded to the study of the sciences. Sicily and Crete were conquered by his arms.

807.

Haroun Al Raschid.

But even in that magnificent reign, the decline of the empire had begun. Motassem, the successor of Al Mamour, established a guard of Turks for the security of his throne; these soon acted over the scenes of the prætorians of Rome, and assassinated and elevated caliphs at pleasure. From this period, the decay of the empire was rapid, and province after province was lost.

Decline of the Ca-  
liphate.

On the elevation of the Abassides, Spain had revolted, and placed the last of the Omniades, Abdalrahman, upon the throne of Cordova. The example of Spain was shortly imitated by the provinces of Africa. Three dynasties had arisen there in the commencement of the ninth century, and in the tenth, the descendants of Fatima wrested from the Abassides the province of Egypt, and established their throne at Cairo. Thus, Bagdad, Spain, and Cairo, had each its caliph, and each disputed the title of the other.

## SECTION V.

### RISE OF THE TURKISH POWER.

While the empire of the Caliphs was thus dismembered, the power of the Turks was rising into consequence. It is believed that they

possessed an ancient Scythian empire, but it had long been dissolved, and now powerful and independent tribes were scattered through the interior of Asia, from China to the Oxus and Danube. Slaves and soldiers of Turkish extraction, were in the service of every monarch of Asia, and often obtained places of the highest trust and honour.

At the close of the 10th century, Mahmoud, who from the situation of a slave, had risen to supreme command in the province of Gazna, made himself master of Choras-an. He next added Transoxania and Persia to his dominions, and extended his conquests to Hindostan. Mahmoud is one of the most renowned of eastern conquerors. Twelve times, it is said, he penetrated India. He conquered the cities of Delhi, Lahore, and Multan, extended the religion of the Moslems, which the Turks had embraced, and returned enriched with the spoils of the east. The caliph conferred on him the title of Sultan, and his authority was acknowledged from the Caspian to the Indus.

Tagrul Beg, a valiant Turk of the family of Seljouk, was the founder of the Seljoukian dynasty. Tagrul expressed the utmost reverence for the caliph of Bagdad, delivered him from the oppression of the Turkish and Arabian emirs, and restored to him the city and district of Bagdad.

Malek, the second prince from Tagrul, was one of the most powerful conquerors of his age. He extended his dominions from the borders of China, to the neighbourhood of Constantinople. The reign of Malek was peaceful and prosperous, and through his liberality the literature of the east revived. On the death of Malek, the empire was divided among his sons, the Persian throne, as that to which the others were in some measure subordinate, being given to the eldest.

Soliman, of the family of Seljouk, was a renowned and powerful sovereign. His interference was felt in the affairs of the Greek empire, as we find him establishing one of the emperors upon the throne. Under this valiant prince, Jerusalem was conquered, Antioch was obtained by the treachery of its commander, and at length, all Asia Minor was subdued. Alexius, emperor of Constantinople, trembled for the safety of his empire, now threatened by the Normans. He was forced to consent to their claims, and confirmed by treaty the conquests of Soliman.

## PERIOD V.

COMPRISING EVENTS FROM THE

Commencement { FOURTH EPOCH, 1100 A. D. } of the Crusades,

TO THE



Return of Columbus.

The Discovery { FIFTH EPOCH, 1492 A. D. } of America.

### CHAPTER I.

#### SECTION I.

#### THE CRUSADES.

As the spiritual worship of the early Christians was exchanged for the frivolous rites and idle ceremonies of later days, the possession of relics, and pilgrimages made to holy places, became objects of eager desire and substitutes for personal piety. Of all pilgrimages, that to

Pilgrimages to the  
Holy Sepulchre.

the holy sepulchre of Jerusalem was the most frequently made, and considered the most meritorious.

It was performed by multitudes of devotees from every part of Europe. After the holy city fell into the hands of the Saracens, the pilgrimages, though attended with more difficulty and

danger, were still continued. The caliph Haroun al Raschid afforded protection to the Christian pilgrims, and even presented Charlemagne with the keys of the holy sepulchre. His successors, the Abbassides pursued the same tolerant system.

But when the Fatimites of Africa obtained possession of Palestine and Syria, the pilgrims suffered from them severe persecution. Under the reign of Hakem, the third caliph of the Fatimite race, Christian churches were demolished, the destruction of the sepulchre attempted, and many Christians suffered death.

Under the succeeding caliphs, however, a tolerant spirit revived, and pilgrimages became more frequent than ever. Policy might dictate this course, as the treasury of the caliphs was replenished by the tribute which procured the protection of the devotees. Two years preceding the first crusade, pilgrimages had increased to an unparalleled extent. Multitudes of every age, and rank, and sex, thronged the roads to Jerusalem.

At this period, when the holy land became the possession of the Turkish hordes, new persecutions arose. The pilgrims, who with toil and suffering had pressed their way from the most distant parts of Christendom, often found themselves on their arrival at the holy city, debarred from entrance, by demands which they were unable to meet, and thus deprived of the object for which their sufferings had been endured. Multitudes perished by want; and of the thousands who directed their enthusiastic way to Asia, few returned to their homes. The accounts which these brought of their injuries, roused the indignation of Europe against the infidel oppressors.

Previously to this time, pope Gregory VII. had suggested the idea of a war, for the recovery of the holy sepulchre, and the extermination of the infidels, but no attempts were made to carry the project into execution. At this period every thing seemed ripe for such an event. The spirit of chivalry had filled Europe with a large body of knights and warriors, ready to embark in any enterprize where glory was to be acquired. The sufferings of their friends and relatives in their visits to the holy land roused their sympathies, and letters from Alexius, the emperor of the east, earnestly besought the assistance of the Christian monarchs against the Turkish power, which now threatened the destruction of his empire.

At this period, Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in France, returned from Jerusalem, where his enthusiasm had been fed, and his resentment enkindled. He hastened to visit the pope, Urban II., and with his approbation the enthusiastic Peter went through Europe, publishing the sufferings of the pilgrims, and calling on Christian warriors to have pity upon their brethren, to go up to battle in the name of the Lord, and no longer suffer the holy sepulchre to be defiled by infidels. The people listened to his moving appeal, till their hearts burned to

Pilgrims persecuted.

Pilgrims tolerated.

Pilgrims again persecuted.

Pope Gregory suggests a Holy War.

Alexius implores aid against the Turks.

1095.

Peter the Hermit.

avenge the wrongs of their companions and to deliver the sepulchre of their Saviour from infidel profanation. The flame spread from hamlet to hamlet, from city to city, from country to country. Every where the holy Peter was received with rapture.

The pope called a council at Placentia. Ambassadors from Alex-  
 Council at Placentia. ius urged the danger of delay, as all Christendom was now threatened by the Turkish arms.

A second council was convened in the autumn of the same year, at  
 Council at Clermont. Clermont, in France, to make a final decision. An immense multitude of priests, princes, and nobles, were present; and so great was the concourse of people, that the city was filled, and thousands compelled to erect shelters in the fields. Urban II. addressed the assembled crowds, and with the most persuasive eloquence depicted the horrors of infidel oppression, the duty of arming in defence of the holy cause, and the rewards of the faithful. The effect was overwhelming. The crowds sent forth, simultaneously, the shout, "God wills it." "God wills it." "It is the will of God," replied the pope, "and let this memorable word, the inspiration surely of the Holy Spirit, be forever adopted as your battle-cry, to animate the devotion and courage of the champions of Christ." The sign of the cross was immediately impressed upon the right shoulders of the garments of the champions, the pope pronounced the absolution of their sins, and the multitudes separated to prepare for the war.

The 15th of August following, was fixed for the departure of the pilgrims, but so eager were the lower orders, and  
 1096. so incapable of appreciating the necessity of preparation, that the crowds, under the command of Walter the Pennyless, and Peter the Hermit, took their departure early in the spring.—Walter is described as possessed of considerable military talent, but the multitudes who marched under his standard, were undisciplined and ungovernable.—The crowd who followed Peter were, if possible, still more licentious.

Before they reached Constantinople, many of these crusaders had  
 Destruction of the Crusaders. fallen by skirmishes with the Hungarians, and Bulgarians. From Constantinople they crossed the Bosphorus, but in their progress through Bythinia, nearly the whole fell an easy conquest to the Turks. Peter returned to Constantinople, and Walter fell in battle.

But while these undisciplined bodies were hurrying to destruction, the chivalry of Europe, under their most warlike and able commanders, were preparing for more regular warfare. The most renowned chiefs of the first crusade were Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorraine; Hugh, count of Vermandois, brother of the French king; Robert, duke of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror; Robert, count of Flanders, Raymond, count of Toulouse; Adhemar, Bishop of Puy; and Bohemond, prince of Tarentum, son of the famous Robert Guiscard. It was under his banners that Tancred, his kinsman, and the pride of European chivalry, marched. The various forces under the com-



mand of their respective chiefs, took separate routes for Constantinople.

Hugh of Vermandois, the first who reached the dominions of the emperor, where he had expected friendship and welcome, was, on his arrival, arrested and imprisoned. The emperor of the east was conscious of his weakness, and though when he supplicated aid from the west, he would gladly have received a few thousand troops, he was alarmed at the formidable and warlike hosts. "It seemed," says the historian Anna Comnena, his daughter, "as if all Europe, loosened from its foundation, was precipitating itself upon Asia." On the arrival of Godfrey, Hugh was released, not however, until he had done homage to the emperor of the east. The policy of Alexius was to preserve his own sovereignty, and to convey from Constantinople one army, before the arrival of another.

Emperor of the East  
treats the Crusaders  
with cruelty.

Before the walls of Nice, the capital of the Seljoukian kingdom, these several bodies of crusaders met and besieged the city. Robert of Normandy arrived after the commencement of the siege. Peter the Hermit

1097.

Nice besieged.

also joined him with the small wreck of his host; yet the number of the crusaders after their junction, is computed at six hundred thousand armed warriors. While the Christians besieged his capital, Soliman, who had been assembling his warriors from the distant parts of his dominions, arrived on the mountains, in view of the Christian camp.

Crusaders victorious.

A battle ensued, the Turks were defeated, and obliged to retreat. After a few weeks, the city surrendered.

## SECTION II.

The efforts of Soliman, after his defeat, were unremitting and vigorous in raising another army, and when after the surrender of the city, the crusaders commenced their march, he surprised them in

Crusaders again vic-  
torious.

Phrygia and gave them battle, but the Christians were again triumphant. Great numbers in both armies fell. The Turks who saved themselves by retreat, proceeded next to desolate the country through which the route of the crusaders lay. Thus the difficulties of their march increased, and numbers sunk under hardships. After halting a while at Antiochetta, the army proceeded on their march towards Antioch.

After an unsuccessful attempt at storming this city, its siege was commenced. For seven months it continued with

1098.

Siege of Antioch.

little prospect of success, when the treachery of the commander of one of the towers, admitted the Christians within the city. In the night a body of the crusaders entered, and the Turks were awakened by their horns, announcing to the army without the walls, the success of their enterprise. They rushed to arms, and the sanguinary and hopeless contest continued through the night. The gates were opened to the army without, and in the

confusion and darkness, many Christians, as well as Turks, fell by the hands of their brethren. In the fanaticism of the moment, the most horrid excesses and cruelties were committed. Though the Christians obtained possession of the city, the citadel was still occupied by the Turks. The small supplies of provisions which the Christians found within the city were soon exhausted, and before measures could be taken for procuring more, an immense army under the command of the Persian Emir appeared before the walls. The successes of the Christians had alarmed the Mahometan powers, and the representations of Soliman had roused them to aid in the defence of his kingdom.

The crusaders were in their turn besieged.—The Persian Emir and Soliman had joined their forces, and were now set down before Antioch, with three hundred thousand men. The most horrible famine now prevailed in the Christian army. Their horses were slain for food, while within their view, the Turkish camp displayed every luxury.

When thus reduced to the utmost distress, the superstition of the soldiers was called in aid. The priests were favoured with visions of success. Either deluded by their enthusiastic imagination, or practising deception, they declared that they saw visions from heaven encouraging them to persevere, and promising them victory. At this time, also, the knowledge of the place where the lance which pierced the Saviour's side was buried, was revealed to a monk with directions to procure it, and assurances of victory when in possession of this holy relic. The lance was sought; after some digging, the monk to whom the revelation was made, descended into the excavation, and brought it up with him. The hearts of the soldiers revived, and with newly awakened enthusiasm, they begged to be led against the infidels.—They were purified by the customary rites of the church, and, the following morning, advanced, full of assurance, against the Turks. The immense superiority of numbers which the Turks possessed, was ineffectual against the enthusiasm which now animated the crusaders. The battle was bravely and obstinately fought; at length the cry that the saints were seen fighting on their side, gave to the fanatical host, resistless might. The Turks fled in confusion, their camp fell into the hands of the victors, and abundance succeeded to famine. The loss of the Turks, in this engagement, is estimated at 69,000, while that of the Christians is placed at less than the sixth of this number.

The chiefs delayed for the next two months their advances towards Jerusalem, but during their stay in Antioch, a severe pestilence swept away multitudes of their followers. In October, they again commenced their march, and at length arrived in sight of the holy city. Dissensions had arisen between the different commanders, but they were now laid aside by mutual concessions, and every thought directed to the recovery of the city. Though the crusaders were now reduced to less than sixty thousand men, the most vigorous prepara-

1099.

Crusaders assault  
Jerusalem.

tions were made for the assault. Moveable towers, and all the implements of destruction, known to the warriors of the eleventh century were prepared. Efforts almost incredible were made by the different chiefs in the contest. The greatest part of two days was consumed in the assault; at length some of the Christian chiefs gained the battlements, and there planted the standard of the cross. A most dreadful massacre followed in the city, and the blood of thousands polluted its holy places.

The object of the war being accomplished in the deliverance of the holy city and temple, the crusaders now bent their thoughts to the permanent establishment of their power. Godfrey of Bouillon, the most deserving of their chiefs, was elected king of Jerusalem. He soon found himself compelled to enter into a contest with the Turks for the preservation of his kingdom. At Askelön, he encountered and defeated a large body of Moslems.

The premature death of Godfrey left the throne of Jerusalem vacant, and after many dissensions, Baldwin, brother of Godfrey, received the crown. Under his administration, the kingdom of Jerusalem flourished. His army triumphed over the Saracens, and several towns were annexed to his dominions.

1102.

Baldwin crowned.

Previously to the conquest of the city, many of the chiefs had abandoned the enterprise and returned to Europe. The Christian force was now so greatly diminished by the departure of the different bodies of troops, that hardly enough was left for its defence. The strength of the kingdom was indeed gradually augmented by the arrival of more bodies of pilgrims, many of whom dispersed themselves in the adjacent country, and commenced the cultivation of the devastated lands.

The emperor Alexius, intent on the preservation of his empire, and perhaps equally alarmed by the encroachments of the Turks in Asia, and the swarm of pilgrim warriors precipitated upon his empire from the west,

1097.

Treachery of Alex-  
ius.

pursued a treacherous course of policy, by which he designed to benefit his own kingdom, whichever way the fortune of the war might incline. While he urged the Christians to the prosecution of the holy war, he afforded them no aid, but rather impeded their movements.

On the surrender of Nice, a secret treaty was completed between an agent of Alexius and the Turks, by which the city became the prize of the Grecian emperor. While the Christians proceeded onwards to Jerusalem, and occupied the attention and strength of the Mahometan powers, Alexius recovered possession of many of the cities of Asia Minor, and of some of the islands which had been conquered by the Turks. He transmitted his empire to his successors with its boundaries enlarged, and its internal affairs in a prosperous condition.

His son and successor, John, swayed the imperial sceptre twenty-five years with vigour and clemency. The penalty of death was abolished during his reign. Manuel, his son and successor, was occupied with a series of wars against the Turks, the Christians, and the barbarians beyond the Danube. It was during this period that the second crusade was undertaken by Conrad III., emperor of Germany, and Louis VII., king of France. Manuel is accused, and probably with justice, of having caused the failure of the expedition, by his treacherous alliance with the Turks.

From this time to the third crusade, a period of nearly fifty years, the Byzantine history presents domestic discords, and no characters or events of magnitude.

It was during the reign of Isaac Angelus, that the third crusade was undertaken by the kings of France and England, and the emperor of Germany.

1188.  
Third Crusade.

### SECTION III.

#### GERMANY.

The war of the investiture did not cease with the death of Gregory VII. Urban II. pursued the same design of aggrandizing the Roman See, and Henry IV. of Germany, the same resolution of keeping the power of the emperor superior to that of the pope.

At the instigation of Urban, Conrad, the son of Henry, rebelled, assumed the title of king of Italy, and induced many of the cities to submit to his government. Meanwhile, the death of Conrad and Urban, while it changed the actors on the scene, did not change the current of events. Pascal II., successor of Urban, excommunicated the emperor, and induced his younger son, Henry, to revolt and assume the imperial honours. Henry IV. was deposed, imprisoned, and reduced to the utmost distress. But he escaped from his confinement, collected an army, and in the course of thirty years, fought sixty battles, when his death put a stop to the war.

No sooner did his successor, Henry V., find himself securely seated on the throne, than he entered upon the same course of opposition to the church, which his father had maintained. During the contest, which continued many years, Henry repeatedly marched into Italy, defeated the forces of the pope, and at one time made him prisoner. The pope excommunicated the emperor, and the emperor appointed a new pope, who revoked the sentence, and confirmed his right of investiture.

At length, the states, weary of the disorder and confusion attending

1084.

Conrad.

1099.

The emperor excommunicated.

1106.

Henry V. opposes the pope.

1119.

Pope and Emperor  
reconciled.

the contest, effected a reconciliation. Calixtus II., then on the papal throne, called a council, at which the ambassadors of the emperor appeared, and in which a compromise between the emperor and the pope was effected.

The reign of Henry V. was one of the most bloody which had desolated Christendom, marked not only by the war just mentioned, but by others with Hungary and Poland.

On the death of Henry, who had no children, the states elected Lothaire, duke of Saxe-Supplembourg. Lothaire engaged in war with the Bohemians from whom he

Lothaire.

exacted homage. Two popes now disputed the title to the papal chair. Lothaire espoused the cause of Innocent II., and marched into Italy to establish his right. This involved him in war with Roger, duke of Apulia, who espoused the cause of Anacletus. The arms of Lothaire prevailed, Roger was driven from his Italian possessions into Sicily, which he had recently conquered, and Anacletus was imprisoned.—During this reign, the Justinian code of laws was adopted in Germany.

The sudden death of Lothaire, without heirs, again changed the line of succession. The states convened, and elected Conrad of Franconia, nephew of Henry V. The

1141.

Conrad III.

duke of Bavaria, of the family of the Guelphs, aided by the pope, disputed his title, and embroiled the empire in a civil war. The emperor's brother, Frederic, duke of Suabia, commanded the imperial forces, and his soldiers took the name of Ghibellines, from the place of Frederic's nativity. Hence while the party favoured by the pope, was called the Guelphs, that of the emperor was called the Ghibellines.

Guelphs and Ghi-  
bellines.

In the war of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, a celebrated incident occurred. The Guelphs and their principal followers, took by siege the castle of Weinsburg. The lady of the castle, knowing the enmity of the conqueror to her husband and his adherents, begged permission for herself and her ladies, to leave the castle with whatever each could carry off. The conquerors consented, and made way, expecting to see loads of finery carried out; but lo! the duchess came forth with her husband on her back! followed by the ladies of her train, each imitating the worthy example.

Incident at the castle  
of Weinsburg.

No sooner was tranquillity in any measure restored, than Conrad III., inspired by the preaching of St. Bernard with the fanaticism of the times, resolved to take arms in defence of the Christians of Jerusalem, who were now pressed by the Mahometan powers.

He marched to Asia, but failing in the object of his enterprise, returned with the wreck of an army. The death of

1148.

Conrad joins in the  
crusades.

his son, which was shortly followed by his own, left the imperial crown to his nephew, Frederic Barbarossa.

His reign commenced under auspicious circumstances, yet, like his predecessors, he was soon involved in difficulties with the pope. This warlike prince subdued the Poles, awed the Bohemians, and obliged the king of Denmark to do him homage.

1152.  
Frederic Barbarossa.

The spirit of liberty had arisen in the Lombard cities; several of which, encouraged by the pope, revolted from the emperor. Frederic marched into Italy, and took signal vengeance on the revolted cities. He razed Milan to its foundations, strewed salt upon its ruins, and destroyed several other cities, or deprived them of their privileges. He marched, repeatedly, into Italy, but was not successful in his attempts to conquer the Lombards.

Lombard cities revolt.

1162.  
Milan destroyed.

### SECTION III.

#### FRANCE.

Philip I., who was on the throne of France at the commencement of this period, was a profligate and licentious prince. So openly dissolute was his character, that in the council of Clermont, assembled within his kingdom, pope Urban did not hesitate to pronounce his excommunication. This encouraged his nobles, who openly aspired to independence, and during his weak and inefficient reign, many encroachments were made on the prerogatives of the crown.

1056.  
Philip I.

Philip was succeeded by his son, Louis VI. The energy and virtue of Louis, rescued the monarchy from its ruinous state. During the principal part of his reign, he was occupied in a war with Henry I. of England, who had acquired Normandy from his brother Robert, and now withheld it from William, the son of Robert. Louis regained the power over the great

1108.  
Louis VI.

War with Henry I.  
of England.

feudatories of the crown, which his father had lost. This he effected, by showing himself the protector of the lower orders, and by making freemen of many of the vassals, and thus composing a third state, or commons.

Louis VII., or the Young, his son and successor, was early involved in war with the aspiring nobles. He was successful

1137.  
Louis VII. or the  
Young.

1147.  
Louis resolves to join  
the crusade.

in subduing them, but the destruction of thirteen hundred persons of the town of Vitre, who had taken refuge in a church to which he ordered fire to be put, pressed so heavily on his conscience, that he resolved to expiate his guilt by joining the crusade, which St. Bernard at this time so eloquently urged.

—The result of the second crusade, in which Louis, and the emperor, Conrad III., acted a conspicuous part, was disastrous. The army of Louis, like that of Conrad, fell before the arrows of the Moslems, and

after a visit to the holy city, productive of no efficient aid to the Christians there, Louis returned with the wreck of his army.

Immediately on his return to France, Eleanor, his queen, was divorced on an accusation of infidelity. She soon after married the duke of Normandy, afterwards Henry II. of England, who by this marriage, obtained in addition to Normandy, Anjou, and Maine, already in his possession, the fine provinces of Guienne and Poictou.

Henry, afterwards succeeding to the crown of England, still held his French possessions, which proved a source of contention between the rival monarchs, and led to wars which for a long period distracted France and England.

Philip Augustus, son of Louis VII., succeeded to the throne of France, in the fifteenth year of his age. Philip entered into an alliance with Richard, the son of Henry of England, and encouraged and aided him in a rebellion against his father.

Philip Augustus.

1189.

Philip engages in the third crusade.

Philip Augustus engaged in the third crusade, with Frederick Barbarossa, and with Richard, who had succeeded to the throne of England under the title of Richard I. Each of these monarchs were aspirants for military fame, nor is it difficult to believe that they regarded Palestine less with the reverence of devotion, than as a field on which they were to reap the laurels they so ardently coveted.

#### SECTION IV.

#### ENGLAND.

William the Conqueror left three sons, William II., who succeeded to the crown of England, Robert, who inherited Normandy, and Henry.

Robert, duke of Normandy, in his zeal for the deliverance of the holy sepulchre, had, as has been related, mortgaged his dukedom to his brother, William II. of England, in order to obtain the sum requisite to enter upon that enterprise. But he was, notwithstanding, the legal heir. The death of William occurring during his absence, enabled Henry, the younger brother, to usurp the sovereignty, and to use means to render his usurpations secure.

Henry promised to restore the laws of Edward the Confessor, and more effectually to ingratiate himself with the ancient English, he married Margaret, called the good queen Maud, a daughter of Margaret queen of Scotland, and thus a descendant of their ancient kings.

1100.

Henry I.

Robert was already on his return from the holy land when the news of his brother's death reached him. He accordingly hastened to England to claim his inheritance. Henry, however, persuaded Robert to enter into a treaty, by which he received the dukedom of Normandy, and a small annual tribute, but left Henry in possession of the crown of England. The brother who outlived the other, was

to inherit the dominions of the deceased. The jealousy and ambition of the brothers, however, would not permit them to remain at peace, and Henry soon possessed himself by force, of Robert's dominions, made his brother prisoner for life, and inhumanly deprived him of his eyes.

William, the son of Robert, was still the rightful heir of Normandy, and received protection from Louis the Fat, king of France.

Henry I., though successful in his usurpation, met with a domestic affliction of a severe character. His son, prince William, was shipwrecked on his return from Normandy, through the carelessness and intemperance of the commander of the vessel. Besides the prince, one hundred and forty young nobles perished.—It is said that after

1110.  
Henry's son perishes  
by shipwreck.

this event Henry never smiled. After the death of his son, he induced a council of the prelates and nobles to take the oath of fealty to his daughter, Maud or Matilda, whom he married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the earl of Anjou. On the birth of her son, afterward Henry II., the king procured from the nobles a renewal of the oath of fealty to the princess and her son. After a reign of thirty-five years, continually disturbed by wars and disorders, Henry died.

Stephen, earl of Boulogne, grandson of the conqueror in the maternal line, notwithstanding he had been the first to take the oath of fealty to Matilda and her son, now urged his claim to the throne. Before Matilda could arrive in England, Stephen had been crowned by the archbishop of Canterbury. The kingdom was immediately divided by the partisans of the adverse claimants. Civil war, with its

accustomed horror, raged through the land, and the feudal barons, at this period, built and fortified castles, and acted independently of the sovereign authority. After many years of alternate success, when the son of Matilda had arrived at age, the nation, weary of the contest, compelled the hostile parties to peace. In a council of the kingdom, it was determined that Stephen should retain the crown during his life, after which Henry should succeed to it.

About a year afterwards, on the death of Stephen, Henry was crowned king of England, and received with acclamations by the people. His dominions were extensive, and he was considered the most powerful prince of his age. The sovereignty of England, Normandy, and Anjou, he inherited. His marriage with Eleanor, the divorced queen of Louis VII., gave him also the sovereignty of Guienne and Poitou.

The inhabitants of Ireland had until this period remained unconquered by any foreign power, but were engaged in perpetual contests and hostilities among themselves. They were in a state of barbarism; and Henry invaded and conquered them with little difficulty. The native princes, after acknowledging homage to the crown of England, were left in possession of their respective territories.

1172.  
Henry II. invades  
and conquers Ire-  
land.



The same contest for supremacy, between the civil and ecclesiastical powers, which had involved the German emperors in continual wars with the popes, now existed in England. The power of the clergy had become enormous, and as they claimed exemption from all trials before courts of justice, the most atrocious crimes were often committed by them with impunity. To facilitate the execution of his plans, for bringing the power of the church into subordination to that of

1158.

Thomas a Becket.

the crown, Henry elevated to the see of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, a man, who from his previous habits of luxury and ease, and from the intimacy which had existed between them, the king hoped to find subservient to his will. But with a change of office, Becket also exhibited a change of manners ; and being now the second person in the kingdom, he soon aspired to be the first. To this end it was necessary to impose on the superstition and credulity of the people an opinion of his sanctity. He ate bread, drank water, wore shirts of sackcloth seldom changed, lacerated his body with whips, and daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars. Who could doubt that with such mortifications, Becket was a

1164.

Council of Clarendon.

saint ! This character established, he openly opposed the authority of the king. Henry summoned a council at Clarendon, in which laws were passed for subjecting the ecclesiastical, to the secular power. Becket resisted the law, and was arrested. Henry also called him to account for the rents and profits he had received while chancellor, an office he had previously held. Becket appealed to Rome, and obtained the approbation of pope Alexander II., and the support of the king of France. Still the power of the king obliged him to flee from England, and he was for a time supported by the generosity of Louis.

Henry, determined to resist the usurpations of the church, suspended the payment of certain church revenues, and hastened an alliance with Frederic Barbarossa, with whom the pope was also at war.

At length each party, afraid of the other, came to conditions of

Becket restored.

peace ; and Becket was restored to his archbishoprick with honour, while the controverted points were passed by in silence. Becket now came to England like a conqueror, and assumed a splendour little less than regal. He notified three of the principal prelates, that the pope had excommunicated them, for certain acts of obedience to the king. When the news of this arrogance was brought to Henry, who was in Normandy, he exclaimed, "Will my servants still leave me exposed to the insolence of this ungrateful and imperious priest ?" Four knights of rank, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, Richard Britts, and Reginald

1170.

Becket assassinated.

Fitz Urse, hearing his complaints, resolved upon Becket's death. They immediately repaired to Canterbury, and assassinated the prelate in his church, during the evening service. It was not Henry's intention to have had him murdered, and the news filled him with consternation. He hastened to make his peace with the pope, and the death of Beck-

et procured for the church those concessions which the most strenuous exertions of his life could not exact.—The king obtained absolution, and made a pilgrimage to the shrine of the murdered prelate, who was canonized; and so great was the fame of the martyred saint, especially for healing diseases, that an hundred thousand pilgrimages to his tomb, are computed to have been made in one year!

The latter years of Henry's life were embittered by domestic dissensions. The king of France incited his sons

1173. against their father. Henry, the eldest, claimed  
Henry's sons rebel. Normandy, and his father's refusal was the signal for his rebellion. Richard and Geoffrey united with their brother, notwithstanding Henry had been very liberal to them; and William, the king of Scotland, joined the unnatural confederacy. The English dominions in France were for two years the theatre of war between the contending parties. A pacification was at length effected, and the young princes pardoned. The king of Scotland, who invaded England, was defeated and made prisoner.

Notwithstanding the reconciliation of Richard with his father, he again rebelled, and united with Philip Augustus, now on the throne of France. Amid these troubles, and sorely disappointed at finding himself deserted by his youngest and favourite son, John, Henry was taken ill, and died. This king, in most respects of a happy character, was soured by his misfortunes, and expired with a curse against his disobedient children.\*

Richard succeeded to the throne of England, and his first acts were preparatory to a contemplated crusade. On

1189.

Richard.

Persecution of the  
Jews.

the day of his coronation, a most horrible persecution of the Jews took place, which Richard vainly sought to prevent. Their residence in the different kingdoms of Europe, could never be considered safe, as they were without the protection of the laws, and at times multitudes of them fell victims to a fanatical and infuriated populace. The unhappy Jews, learning that their destruction was determined on, resolved, at the suggestion of one of their rabbis, to destroy themselves. The hearts of a few, however, shrunk from the dreadful task; but their lives were only prolonged until morning, when their persecutors made themselves masters of their dwellings, and murdered all who survived.

\* What else ought a man to expect, who marries a bad woman from ambition, and then treats her ill, but that his family will be the seat of disorders. Henry is the sovereign whose queen, Eleanor, is said to have poisoned his favourite, fair Rosamond. But this story is fabulous, as Rosamond Clifford, it appears, retired to a monastery, and there died. To Henry's want of conjugal fidelity and lawless loves, may be traced many of his troubles. There is too much reason to believe that he cherished a criminal passion for the young Adelais, the betrothed wife of his son Richard, and sister to Philip, king of France; who was sent in her childhood to be educated in England. When Richard demanded her, his father would not relinquish her; and on Henry's death, Richard refused to marry her. This caused the enmity of Richard to his father, and the hatred of Philip to Richard.

## CHAPTER II.

## SECTION I.

## THE CRUSADES.

When Jerusalem was taken by the Christians of the first crusade, consternation was spread through the empire of the Moslems. The Seljoukians had followed the usual course of the Asiatic dynasties, and the last of the race sunk into imbecility and vice. The name of the sovereign of Persia was hardly known to the Christians. But the Atabeks became formidable. This was a Turkish name, given to the petty princes, who, in the decline of the dynasty, obtained the government of the different provinces, and undertook the defence of the Mahometan faith.

The Fatimite caliphs of Egypt were at this time reduced to the most distressed and degraded state, the viziers or sultans had usurped the supreme authority, and Cairo was distracted by hostile factions. The aid of Nouredin was implored by the weaker party, and Siracouh, a valiant commander of the race of the Curds, was despatched for that purpose. The Curds eventually became masters of Egypt, the Fatimite caliphs were dethroned, and the house of Abbas declared the rightful successors of the prophet.

Siracouh was accompanied in his Egyptian expedition, by his nephew Saladin, who on the death of his uncle was promoted to the office of vizier. Saladin at length threw off his allegiance to the caliphs, made himself lord of Egypt, invaded and conquered Aleppo, Damascus, and Diarbekir; Arabia submitted to his arms; and the inhabitants of Tripoli and Tunis acknowledged his authority. Uniting the power of Egypt, Syria, and Arabia, Saladin proceeded to wrest the kingdom of Jerusalem from the Christians. This kingdom, now under Guy of Lusignan, was reduced to a state of extreme weakness. A battle fought at Tiberias, in which Saladin was victorious, broke the Christian power in Palestine; and at length Jerusalem, in the conquest and defence of which so much blood had been shed, was recovered by the Turks. The conduct of Saladin in the surrender of Jerusalem, was mild and magnanimous. He accepted a ransom for the richer prisoners, and permitted the poor to go free.—Saladin still extended his conquests, and with the exception of Tyre, made himself master of the whole of Palestine.

Saladin.

1186.

Saladin takes Jerusalem.

## SECTION II.

## THE THIRD CRUSADE.

The news of the conquest of Jerusalem filled Europe with dismay; the pope sought at once to heal the dissensions of the Christian monarchs, and induce them again to take arms in defence of the cross.

The enmity of France and England presenting an obstacle to the absence of either monarch from his kingdom, Richard I. of England, and Philip Augustus, agreed to lay aside their animosities, and embark in the holy war. Their entrance upon the enterprise was delayed by the war in which Richard had engaged against his father. On the accession of Richard to the crown, all impediments were removed, and the monarchs of England and France entered into a treaty, by which no aggressions should be made on the kingdom of the other during the absence of its king.

The first monarch to go forward with his arms in the third crusade, was Frederic Barbarossa, emperor of Germany. In his march through the Greek empire, he was subjected to all the annoyances which had destroyed the former expeditions. The resolute Frederic, however, crossed the Bosphorus, defeated the Saracens, took the city of Iconium, and spread the fame of his military skill, and the terror of his arms, even to the throne of Saladin. But the death of Frederic, which occurred in consequence of bathing in the Cydnus, a river in Cilicia, put a period to his splendid successes. His troops proceeded to Antioch, to await the arrival of the other crusaders.

Philip Augustus and Richard wisely resolved to avoid the evils incident to a passage through the Greek empire. They accordingly embarked, the one at Genoa, and the other at Marseilles, and met again, at Messina, in Sicily. During their stay here, animosities

1189.

Siege of Acre.

arose between them which threatened the destruction of the enterprise. Philip advanced to Palestine, and commenced the siege of Acre. Richard was detained at Cyprus by a quarrel with the sovereign of that island, whom he reduced to submission. He then joined the crusade at Acre, which was taken after a memorable siege of two years.

Philip Augustus, displeased with the delay of Richard, now returned to France, leaving, however, a body of troops under the command of the duke of Burgundy. Near Azotus, Richard obtained a victory over the Mahometans; but when he had advanced within view of Jerusalem, he was discouraged by the dissensions of the camp. He

1192.

Truce with Saladin.

found his numbers and resources diminished, and he determined to forego the siege, and entered into a treaty with Saladin for a truce of three years. The Christians were permitted to visit the holy city, and enjoy the protection of the sultan.

Had Richard been as discreet and politic as he was brave, he might have made himself master of the east. Perhaps no warrior of history ever dealt such blows as Richard the lion-hearted. Of almost giant size and strength, cased in the heavy armour of the times, which the strength of a man at the present day could scarcely raise from the ground, his power in the battle field made him a host in himself. During this war, learning that the Christian garrison at Jaffa was in jeopardy, Richard hastened with a small body of troops to their relief. He rushed with his knights into the thickest ranks of the enemy, vanquished every thing that dared oppose him, and rescued two noble knights who had been taken by the Saracens. Once he was surrounded by a host of soldiers, and single handed he cut his way through them. Such terror and admiration seized his enemies, that fifty years afterwards his name was used by the Saracens to frighten wayward children. It is said that when Saladin perceived the flight of his men, he enquired the cause, and being told that the English king had himself driven them from the city, asked, "Which is he?" He was pointed to a little hillock, where Richard with his men had halted. "What," said Saladin, "On foot among his servants? This is not as it should be;" and immediately sent him a horse. After the departure of Richard, until the death of Saladin, which occurred about a year afterwards, the Christians of Palestine enjoyed a season of repose.

Saladin was the wisest and most upright prince that ever filled a Mahometan throne. When he found himself near death, impressed with the worthlessness of earthly grandeur, he ordered the standard which had been borne in his victorious marches, to be removed, and a shroud to be substituted in its place. This he commanded to be carried through the streets, the criers proclaiming, "Behold what Saladin the mighty conqueror carries with him of all his vast dominions."—After this period, repeated expeditions were undertaken to the holy land, but there was no crusade memorable like those already related.

## SECTION III.

## EASTERN EMPIRE.—MOGULS AND TARTARS.

The Byzantine empire, already stripped of its Asiatic provinces, was further dismembered. Bulgaria, which had for almost two centuries acknowledged its supremacy, revolted, and became independent. Cyprus had been usurped by a prince of the Comnenian family. Richard of England conquered him, and bestowed the island upon Guy of Lusignan, the former king of Jerusalem.

The throne of Isaac Angelus, the monarch of Constantinople, was usurped by his brother, Alexius Angelus, and the dethroned monarch deprived of his sight, and imprisoned. Young Alexius, the son of Isaac, escaped;

1195.

Alexius Angelus.

implored the protection of Pope Innocent III., and sought to engage the nations of the west to employ their arms in the restoration of his father. At this time, many of the nobles of Germany and France, the flower of western chivalry, had assembled with their vassals at Venice, with the design of procuring conveyance to Palestine, for a fourth crusade.

Venice had its origin in the beginning of the fifth century, and was founded by some citizens of Aquileia, who first gave it the name of Rivoalto. Gradually increasing in

population, it remained subject to the Byzantine empire, till in the tenth century, it having become a place of commerce, the Venetians set up for independence, and conquered some provinces of the adjacent country. The crusades had increased their wealth, and at this period they possessed a formidable navy.

To Venice, Alexius proceeded, and besought for his father the aid of the gallant warriors. His importunity was seconded by Dandolo,

the aged and venerable doge, or duke, of Venice.

1202.

Venetian expedition  
against Constantino-  
ple.

The crusaders deliberated, disagreed, and separated.

A large body of the pilgrims, with the Venetians, embarked for Constantinople. The Venetians destroyed the Grecian fleet, and rode triumphant in the harbour; and the capitol, containing above four hundred thousand inhabitants, was besieged and conquered by twenty thousand Latin pilgrims.

1204.

Constantinople ta-  
ken.

Alexius, after one attempt at a sally, fled in secrecy from the city, while the nobles released Isaac from prison, placed him upon the throne, and opened the gates of the city to the besiegers.

The conditions of their succour promised by the young Alexius, were, the submission of the eastern empire to the pope, aid in the holy war, and a contribution of two hundred thousand marks to his deliverers. The Greeks were dissatisfied with these conditions, and irritated at the prospect of surrendering the independence of their church. The engagements of Alexius were not fulfilled, and the Latins became dissatisfied and insolent in their conduct. The indignant Greeks petitioned the senate to give them a more worthy emperor, and offered the imperial purple, in succession, to all the senators. Alexius

Alexius Mazouffe.

Ducas, surnamed Mazouffe, encouraged the revolt, placed himself at its head, treacherously obtained possession of the person of Alexius, murdered him, and took possession of the throne. The aged emperor died of fear and grief.

Mazouffe at first had possession of Constantinople, and endeavoured to defend it against the Latins, whose demands he refused to satisfy. They besieged and took the city. Plunder followed the conquest, and the most precious monuments of ancient arts were destroyed by the hands, not of barbarians, but of Latin soldiery.

Baldwin, count of Flanders, was elected emperor of Constantinople,

1204.

Baldwin emperor.

by the victors, while, to the marquis of Montserrat, were given the island of Crete, and Asiatic Greece.

Baldwin was soon compelled to defend the empire he had conquered. The Greeks of Thrace having revolted, he marched against

them, but was defeated and taken captive. Under his successors, the Latin kingdom languished, until in 1261, less than fifty years after its conquest, it was recovered by the Greeks, under Michael Palæologus, who became the emperor.

About the time of the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins, a conqueror appeared in the heart of Asia, who threatened to subvert all the nations of the east.

Jenghis Khan was the son of a barbarian who reigned over a few hordes of Tartars, numbering, in all, thirty or forty thousand families.—The death of his father, while Jenghis was yet a child, induced the revolt of his subjects, and at the age of thirteen, the courageous Jenghis fought a battle with the rebels. He was compelled to flee, but youthful spirit and valour acquired him renown. By degrees he gained control, until he was formally proclaimed great Khan of the Moguls and Tartars.

He led vast multitudes against the Chinese, passed the great wall, and stormed and destroyed a multitude of cities. His path, like that of other conquerors, was the track of desolation. His retreat was purchased by a tribute from the Chinese emperor. A second expedition drove the emperor of China to his southern provinces, while the northern were added to the empire of Jenghis.—His next expedition was towards the dominions of the Mahometan sultan. Seven hundred thousand Moguls and Tartars are said to have followed his standard, while their antagonists, the Mahometans, are numbered at four hundred thousand. City after city, from the Caspian to the Indus, was besieged and taken; nations and kingdoms were depopulated, laid waste and destroyed. Five centuries were not sufficient to repair the ravages of four years.—While Jenghis himself engaged in this expedition, one of his generals had spread the terror of his arms through the western provinces of Persia, extended his conquests to the banks of the Volga, and made the circuit of the Caspian sea.

The first four successors of Jenghis, nearly completed the reduction of all Asia, and conquered a considerable portion of Europe. His grandson, Kouli Khan, achieved the entire conquest of China, the northern provinces of which had submitted to Jenghis, and the dynasty of the ancient Chinese emperors was exterminated. Bengal and Thibet also yielded him tribute and obedience. The arms of the Moguls were, under another of the grandsons of Jenghis, again carried into Persia, the empire of the caliphs subverted, and the conquests of the Moguls extended to Aleppo and Damascus. The Mamelukes of Egypt opposed their progress, but the kingdoms of Anatolia and Armenia sunk under their arms. They conquered Russia, invaded Poland, and spread devastation through Hungary. Of one of the grandsons of Jenghis it is said, that in the space of less than six years, he extended his conquests over a line of ninety degrees of longitude.

1206.

Jenghis Khan.

Conquests of Jenghis.

1241.

Conquests of Jenghis's successors.

The successors of Jenghis, seated on the borders of China, gradually assumed the manners of the Chinese whom they governed. The whole of China submitted to the government of Kouli Khan, who, to gain their favour, governed them according to their own laws and customs. The extensive conquests of the Moguls were not conducted by the successors of Jenghis in person, but committed to their lieutenants. By degrees, these lieutenants threw off their allegiance to the great Khan, and acquired the supreme controul in their respective provinces. After a time, also, they renounced idolatry and all connection with the Mogul idolaters of China, and embraced Mahometanism. Holagou Khan, a descendant of Jenghis, extirpated the banditti known by the name of the "Society of Assassins." Under Holagou, the temporal power of the caliphs was destroyed.

1227.

Caliphate destroyed.

## CHAPTER III.

### GERMANY.

#### SECTION I.

Henry VI., the son of Frederic Barbarossa, succeeded to the imperial crown of Germany, on the death of his father.

1190.

Henry VI.

The death of William, king of Sicily, about the same time, gave Henry a claim upon that crown, in right of his empress Constantia, the sister of the deceased king. His claim was disputed, and he marched into Italy to support it.

The pope, who claimed Sicily as a fief of the holy see, regarded his pretensions unfavourably. Henry, however, made himself master of nearly all Campania, Calabria, and Apulia; and at length achieved, in another expedition, the conquest of the kingdoms of Sicily and Naples.

His death, which occurred soon after, involved Germany in new troubles. His efforts to render the imperial dignity hereditary, had so far succeeded, as to procure a decree, by which his son, Frederic II., was made king of the Romans, and heir to the empire.

1198.

Frederic II.

Frederic being in his minority, his uncle, Philip, duke of Suabia, was appointed regent; but the empire was disturbed by factions. The reign of Frederic II., like that of Henry IV., passed in continual contests with pope Innocent, who had urged his undertaking a crusade. Frederic promised, but continually delayed. The sultan of Egypt had reduced the Christians of the east to the greatest distress, and their only hope was in the aid of their brethren of the west. To engage Frederic in their cause, Innocent gave him in marriage, Yolande, the daughter of John de Brienne, king of Jerusalem, with that kingdom as her dower.



**1228.** Still Frederic manifested a reluctance to depart, until the patience of the pope was exhausted, and he pronounced his excommunication.  
 Frederic excommunicated.

The emperor, now at open hostility, carried war into Italy, compelled the pope to flee from Rome, and ravaged his possessions. The old factions of the Guelphs and Ghibellines revived, and the desolating ravages of a civil war were felt throughout Italy.—Frederic at length proceeded to perform his vow, but departed for the holy land without the sentence of excommunication having been revoked. His expedition was

more successful than that of either of the preceding monarchs, who had visited Palestine. The sultan of Egypt ceded to Frederic, Jerusalem, with several other cities, and a truce of ten years was concluded.—The reign of Frederic after his return from the east, was passed in the same unhappy contest with the Roman pontiff, with which the earlier period had been marked. The pope instigated many of his subjects in Italy to revolt, and for several years, Germany and Italy were deluged with blood. A succession of popes pursued the same course, they declared Frederic excommunicated and dethroned, and a new emperor was elected. Still Frederic maintained his cause, until death relieved the popes from a fearless and formidable enemy.

The troubles of the empire, however, did not cease with the death of Frederic. The disorder and tumult increased, and a period of distraction and almost unexampled confusion prevailed. All classes

were in arms; several emperors were elected, but none properly acknowledged, until Rodolph, of Hapsburgh, a prince of an ancient family, and considerable possessions in Switzerland, was raised to the throne. From him sprang the house of Austria.

While Germany was in this state of disorder, Denmark, Holland, and Hungary, threw off their allegiance to the empire. A confederation of several cities was formed about this period, in the west of Germany. These cities were situated on, and near the Elbe. They were called the Hanse towns; and the confederation, the Hanseatic league.

The first efforts of Rodolph were to suppress the disorders of his subjects, and to restore tranquillity to his empire. His first military expedition was against Ottocar, king of Bohemia, who had seized the duchy of Austria. The arms of Rodolph were successful, and Ottocar was defeated, and slain in battle. The duchy of Austria, the subject of contention, was given to Albert, the eldest son of Rodolph. The reign of Rodolph was prosperous and popular, and the empire under him was raised from depression to security. His efforts to procure the succession of his son Albert,

were unsuccessful; and after his death, the electors chose Adolphus of Nassau. The unpopularity of

**1291.**

Adolphus of Nassau.

1298.

Albert.

this prince, which Albert increased by representing his actions in the worst light, ended in his deposition, and the elevation of Albert to the imperial dignity.

## SECTION II.

At this period, the Swiss cantons of Uri, Schwitz and Underwald, revolted. These cantons, although free and independent in their internal government, acknowledged the supremacy of the empire; and under the administration of Rodolph, had been treated with great lenity. Albert, indignant at the spirit of freedom which they had occasionally expressed, sent governors, with orders to tame these mountaineers, and bring them to a spirit of subjection. Gesler, one of these governors, had erected in the market place, a pole, on which he placed his hat, commanding the passers by to pay it obeisance.

1308.

Revolt of Swiss cantons.

William Tell, a patriot, whose bosom burned with a desire of redressing his country's wrongs, refused to yield the homage. His sentence of death was changed by the governor, into a command to shoot an apple from the head of his son. Tell, who was a skilful marksman, hit the apple; but the governor discovering another arrow in his possession, enquired for what purpose he had it. The intrepid Tell replied, "It was designed for thee, if I had killed my son." Tell was immediately sentenced to imprisonment for life. But the patriot knew that vengeance was brewing for the tyrants, and deliverance for his country.

William Tell.

Milchtat, Staffacher, and Switz, three patriot leaders, had in secret matured their plans, and no sooner was the abominable act of tyranny perpetrated against their respected fellow citizen, than they raised the standard of revolt, and the whole country rose in arms. The Austrian governors, surprised, and unable to resist, were made prisoners, and conducted to the frontiers, where they were compelled to swear never again to serve against the Swiss, and then liberated.—The forbearance of the Swiss under their repeated wrongs is wonderful, and forms one of the most beautiful examples of a love of liberty, united with humanity, to be found in the history of the world.

General revolt in Switzerland.

Independence of Switzerland.

The deliverance of these three cantons, thus effected without the shedding of one drop of human blood, was shortly followed by that of others, who joined in a confederacy, and formed the republic of Switzerland.

The death of Albert prevented the execution of the measures he was meditating, for reducing the Swiss to submission, and for several months there was an interregnum in the government.

At length Henry, count of Luxembourg, the seventh of that name who had swayed the German sceptre, was elevated to the throne. His short reign of four years, is but a repetition of that of many of his predecessors—contests with the

Henry VII.

popes, wars in Italy, and intrigues at home. During his wars in Italy, he died suddenly, at Benevento. After an interregnum of fourteen months, two emperors were elected in Germany, who, by their conflicting claims, involved the empire in civil war, and again drenched it in blood. The contest ended in the elevation of

1322.

Louis of Bavaria.

Louis of Bavaria to the imperial throne.—Louis, like his predecessors, found himself involved in war with the pope. When the emperor carried the war into Italy, the pope, John XXII., who resided at Avignon, excited the German princes to revolt. On the return of the emperor to quell the domestic disturbances, the pope recovered his power at Rome, and the friends of the emperor were expelled from the city. Finding all reconciliation with the Roman see impossible, Louis summoned a diet, which decreed that the pope had no superiority over the German emperor; nor was his approval essential in the imperial elections, the power of electing the emperor being vested in the college of electors alone.

For a while the empire remained at peace, but the constant intrigues of the pontiffs again produced open hostility to Louis; and Charles of Luxemburg. Clement VI., who had succeeded to the papal chair, procured the election of Charles of Luxembourg, son and heir of the king of Bohemia. The death of Louis, which occurred not long after the election of Charles, prepared the way for the establishment of the latter upon the imperial throne. Charles IV.

1355.

Golden Bull.

was a mere tool for the reigning popes.—It was however during this reign, that the constitution called the Golden Bull was established. By this, the number and duties of the electors, which custom rather than law had heretofore regulated, were settled. This famous instrument shows the style and spirit of the times. It begins with an apostrophe to Satan, Anger, Pride, and Luxury; and it sets forth the necessity that the number of electors should be seven, in order to oppose the seven mortal sins.

On the death of Charles, his son, Wincellaus, succeeded to the imperial throne, as well as to the crown of Bohemia.

1378.

Wincellaus.

The levity and profligacy of this prince disqualified him for the care of his empire, and under his administration, its affairs, both in Germany and Italy, went to ruin. The electors of the empire held a diet, and deposed him. Wincellaus took their treatment however in good part, and returned to his hereditary dominions in Germany, only desiring the cities to send him as a parting present, some butts of their best wine. The electors chose Frederic, duke of Brunswick, who was shortly after murdered; and subsequently, Rupert, count palatine of the Rhine, to fill the vacant throne.

## SECTION III.

At this period may be dated the commencement in Germany, of that schism in the church, called "the Reformation,"

1393.

The Reformation.

which John Huss, of Prague, a follower of the opinions which Wickliffe had taught in England, began to teach in Bohemia. The emperor Rupert sought to heal the dissensions which arose in the church, but died without effecting his object.

Rupert was succeeded in the imperial government by Sigismund,

Sigismund.

1415.

Council of Constance.

king of Hungary, brother to the deposed Wenceslaus. The disorders of the church claimed his first attention. A general council was, with the approbation of the pope, convened at Constance, at which was an unusual display of magnificence. Huss was cited to appear, charged with heresy, condemned, and, with a mitre of paper placed upon his head, on

John Huss burnt.

which were painted three devils, he was committed to the flames, and died maintaining his faith.

The same opinions were professed, and taught, by the learned Jerome of Prague, the companion of Huss, and he

1416.

Jerome of Prague burnt.

suffered the same fate.—But these executions served to increase the numbers of the Hussites, and in Bohemia they maintained a long war with the imperial

power. A pacification was at length effected, and to the Hussites were granted the privileges which they claimed.

Albert, duke of Austria, son in law of Sigismund, succeeded him in

1438.

Albert succeeds Sigismund.

the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, and was subsequently raised to the imperial throne. The short reign of Albert was occupied in preparations for carrying on a war with the Turks in Bulgaria; but his sudden and early death, prevented the execution of his plan.

He was succeeded on the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, by his

1440.

Ladislaus.

son Ladislaus, then a minor, and the empire was conferred on his cousin, Frederic of Austria. This prince wandered, like his predecessors, after the

phantom of power which their Italian titles conferred, and was crowned at Rome.—Ladislaus, king of Hungary, died young, and that kingdom was the subject of contest between many claimants; among these, Frederic appeared, and Germany became for many years the theatre of civil war.

Europe was now alarmed at the progress of the Turks, who at this period made themselves masters of Constantinople.—

1453.

Turks masters of Constantinople.

But although assemblies were summoned for the purpose of arming Christendom against them, nothing effectual was done. The attempts of the Turks

upon Hungary were resisted, and the country long defended by the skill of John Hunniades, who compelled the invaders to raise the

siege of Belgrade, which they had invested. But the death of the Hungarian general, which occurred shortly after, prevented any farther successes to the Christian arms. After a long reign, unmarked by any important event, Frederic III. was succeeded by his son, Maximilian, arch duke of Austria, who by a marriage with the heiress of Burgundy and Flanders, had obtained possession of those extensive domains.

1493.  
Maximilian.

## CHAPTER IV.

### FRANCE.

#### SECTION I.

The plea of Philip Augustus for forsaking the crusade, was ill health ; but if we are to judge by his subsequent conduct, the true cause was, the facilities which presented themselves at that moment in Europe, for aggrandizing his kingdom, joined with the differences which had arisen between him and the English king. The obligations under which he had placed himself by an oath, not to encroach upon the dominions of Richard, were annulled by a dispensation from the pope ; and the unprincipled Philip held himself free to follow his ambitious inclinations. He had excited John of England, to rebel against his brother, and their projects were matured during the captivity of Richard in Germany. When the English king, whom, by arts and bribery, the emissaries of Philip had thought to keep imprisoned, was unexpectedly set free, Philip wrote to John, "Beware ; the devil is unchained." On Richard's return to his dominions, a war ensued between the rivals, but it was characterized by no remarkable event, and waged with little vigour.

1191.

Philip Augustus.

On the accession of John to the crown of England, Philip, availing himself of the deserved unpopularity of that monarch, summoned him as his vassal of Normandy, to appear before him, and answer for the murder of his nephew Arthur. John neglecting to appear, his continental dominions were declared forfeit, and annexed to the French crown.

Philip, though little bound by moral obligation, was a sagacious and politic monarch. He aimed, throughout his reign, to bring his vassals into subordination, to extend the prerogative of the crown, and to enlarge his kingdom.

The pope, in a quarrel with John of England, offered Philip that crown ; and the French monarch made extensive preparations for a war in vindication of the claim thus obtained. Meanwhile the pope concluded a peace with England, and revoked the gift.

**Philip** was succeeded by his son, **Louis VIII.**, whose short reign is memorable for nothing save a cruel war undertaken against the **Albigenses**, a religious order in the south of France, whom the pope denounced as heretics. Their pure and harmless lives afforded them no protection; the same misguided zeal which had hurried on multitudes to the contests with the Saracens of Asia, now wasted itself in persecuting this unhappy sect.

1223.  
**Louis VIII.**  
War against the  
Albigenses.

**Louis VIII.**, called **Saint Louis**, was succeeded by his son, **Louis IX.**, during whose minority, his mother, **Blanche** of Castile, held the reigns of government with a vigorous hand.

1226.  
**Louis IX.**

**Louis** undertook a crusade for the benefit of the distressed Christians in the east. He first directed his arms against Egypt, as being the key to the holy land; but his army was reduced by pestilence, defeated by the Moslems, and himself made prisoner.—He was released, in exchange for the city of **Damietta**, of which his army had obtained possession.—After passing four years in the holy land, he returned to his kingdom.

*Crusade of Louis.*

**Louis invades Tu-**  
**nia.**

But his rage of crusading was not extinguished. He invaded the kingdom of **Tunis**, in order to convert the monarch and his people; but himself and his army fell a prey to an epidemic disease which ravaged the country.

**Louis** was succeeded by his son, **Philip**, surnamed "the Hardy."

1253.  
**Philip the Hardy.**  
Massacre of the  
French in Sicily.

It was during the reign of this prince, that the famous massacre of the French took place in the island of **Sicily**, mentioned in history, as the "**Sicilian vespers.**" **Charles** of **Anjou**, the sovereign of **Sicily**, was a French prince, and uncle to **Philip**. His ambition and talents had made him feared and hated by the clergy, especially by the pope; and the seeds of revolt were sown deep in the minds of the **Sicilians**. At **Palermo**, as a bride with her train were passing the streets, they were treated rudely by a Frenchman. A **Sicilian** immediately stabbed him to the heart. Instantly the cry was heard in every direction, "Kill the French, kill the French;" and a scene of horrible carnage ensued. Men, women and children, were massacred, and every thing belonging to the French was exterminated from the island.

**Charles**, who had escaped from **Sicily**, appealing to his nephew, **Philip**, for aid, engaged him in his cause. **Peter**, king of **Arragon**, had claims upon **Naples** and **Sicily**, and these were now acknowledged by the inhabitants. **Philip**, in order to establish the claims of **Charles**, invaded **Spain**; but he suffered much in the attempt, without accomplishing his purpose.

**Philip III.** was succeeded by his son **Philip**, surnamed "the Fair;" whose reign is marked by contests with the haughty pope **Boniface VIII.** **Philip**, whose finances were low, exacted money from the priests, notwithstanding **Boniface** had prohibited the clergy

1268.  
**Philip IV., or the**  
**Fair.**

of any kingdom whatever, from granting money to princes without his special permission. Boniface sent as a legate, to threaten the king of France, one of his own rebel subjects, who was immediately seized and imprisoned by his sovereign. Boniface, enraged, issued a proclamation declaring that the "Vicar of Christ was vested

with full authority over all the kings and princes of the earth;" and ordered the French clergy forthwith to repair to Rome. A French priest carried this proclamation to the king. Philip threw it into the fire, assembled the representatives of the states of his kingdom, and laid the case before them. They acknowledged Philip's independent authority, and disavowed the pope's claim.—It was on this occasion, that the representatives of cities were first regularly summoned to the national assembly.

French clergy summoned to Rome.

First national assembly of France.

Boniface, it is said, died in consequence of his mortification at the indignities offered him by the partisans of Philip in Italy. His successor, the mild Benedict VI., revoked the sentence of excommunication which Boniface had pronounced against Philip. Clement V., at the death of Benedict, succeeded to the papal chair.

Poitiers the seat of the pope.

He was a Frenchman, and changed the seat of the pontificate from Rome, to Poitiers in France.

Philip IV., although revengeful in his disposition, was a wise and able king. He greatly improved the civil policy of France, both in the legislative, and judicial departments.

His son and successor, Louis X., was a mean and avaricious king.

1314.

Louis X.

He executed his prime minister, Marigny, on the pretence of his dealing in magic; but in reality in order to confiscate his great possessions.—The death

of Louis without male heirs, gave rise to a contest respecting the right of female succession. The decision was unfavourable to the daughter of the king. It was urged that by an ancient

Salic law.

law, called the Salic law, no female could inherit the crown of France. The Salic law was confirmed. The crown of France passed first to Philip the Long, then to Charles the Fair, both brothers of the late monarch. The short

1328.

Philip of Valois.

reigns of these princes, who died without heirs, were followed by the elevation of Philip of Valois, cousin of the late kings; and thus the crown of France passed from the Capetians, to the house of Valois.

Capetian dynasty ends.

## SECTION II.

Edward III., of England, put in a claim to the sovereignty of France in right of his mother Isabella, sister of the last king; his claim was disallowed by the French,

1336.

War with England.

who unanimously placed Philip on the throne;\*

\* Edward's claim was in every respect unjust, for if what he maintained were true, that though by the Salic law females could not reign in France, yet, their male descendants might, there was in this case, a nearer heir to the French throne than Edward.

yet it gave rise to the destructive war which now commenced, and which continued with only one interval of peace, and an occasional truce, for a century; being the most memorable war which had been waged in Europe, since the destruction of the Roman empire. Edward, doubtless trusting more in the strength of his arms, than in the justice of his cause, having obtained the alliance of the Flemings,

1346.  
Battle of Cressy.

Siege of Calais.

assumed the title of king of France, invaded that kingdom, fought the famous battle of Cressy,\* and defeated the army of Philip with great slaughter. He then besieged and took Calais, when a truce was concluded between the two nations. On taking the city, which had resisted his arms for nearly twelve months, Edward threatened to put the inhabitants to the sword, unless they would deliver up to death six of their noblest citizens. Six noble burghers, self devoted, came forth to his camp with halters on their necks. Edward commanded their execution; but at the moment, his queen Philippa arrived, threw herself upon her knees, and implored her husband to save them. She prevailed, and the gallant burghers exclaimed, "Edward conquers our cities, but Philippa our hearts."

The death of Philip occurred before the time of the truce had expired, and the sovereign authority descended to his son John, a prince ill qualified to direct the government of a nation threatened by such formidable foes.

1350.  
John.

On the expiration of the truce, Edward again renewed the war. His valiant son, the prince of Wales, called the Black Prince, who had, when very young, distinguished himself at Cressy; entered

1356.  
Battle of Poitiers.

John taken prisoner.

France at the head of an army, and near Poitiers encountered the forces of John, which were far superior in numbers. Victory declared for the English, the French were routed, and their king made prisoner. The captive monarch received from the Black Prince, the most respectful courtesy. He was carried into England; and during his absence, the government of the kingdom was committed to the dauphin, afterwards Charles V.

A truce with England for two years, relieved France from foreign enemies; but it was torn with domestic dissensions, which the weak administration of the young dauphin was unable to check. The national assembly was convened, but instead of assisting the king's government, they availed themselves of the present disturbances to ex-

\* In this battle the English for the first time used artillery. The great improvement in the art of war, made by introducing fire arms, seemed at the time a barbarous innovation, and it was not until considerably later, that small arms were in use. One hundred years after, the chivalrous Bayard refused to use them, maintaining that it was a cowardly method of attacking an adversary. But experience has shown that the invention of fire arms has been one of the greatest means of civilizing the world. Sturdy barbarians had no longer the advantage which they formerly possessed; and the physical strength of a steel guarded giant, who could deal heavier blows than his neighbours, no longer gained him an ascendancy to which his moral and intellectual energies afforded no claim. It has been found, that whatever increases the dangers and hazards of those who fight, naturally diminishes the number of wars, and makes people more inclined to settle their differences peaceably.



**Paris and other cities revolt.** tend their own prerogatives, and limit those of the crown.—Paris revolted; the example was followed by many other cities, and anarchy pervaded the nation. The peasants rose against the nobility, burnt their castles, and murdered their families without mercy. The horror and desolation which spread through the land, and the want of any authority to check disorders, brought the capital to submit to the dauphin. Charles now proceeded with vigour to restore order in the state.

**Peace with England.** Meanwhile the truce expired, and the English prepared for another invasion. A peace was, however, soon concluded, by which the ransom of John was effected, and several provinces of France, over which the French king renounced all claim to homage, were ceded to England.

**1364.** John did not long survive the peace, and the dauphin, Charles V., from the character of his reign, surnamed the wise, ascended the throne. The first measures of the new monarch were directed to the removal of the internal disorders which had so nearly destroyed the nation. The king of Navarre had been active in fomenting these disturbances. Against him, therefore, the arms of Charles were now turned. He was defeated, and reduced to submission. When Charles had restored the tranquillity of his own kingdom, he renewed the war with England, whose continental affairs, in consequence of the advanced age of Edward III., and feeble health of the Black Prince, were now less prosperous. During the remaining years of his reign, Charles recovered all the conquests of the English except Calais, and conquered from them, a part of Guienne.

**1380.** His son, Charles VI., a minor, succeeded his father. The animosities of the ambitious regents, the dukes of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy, uncles to the young king, kept the nation in a continual state of distraction. **Charles VI.** Charles became insane, and never fully recovered his reason. The people were more than ever burdened with taxes, and the revenues of the kingdom were lavished upon the regal household, or plundered by the officers of government; who, in the mean time, preserved the most inveterate hostility towards each other. From this hatred proceeded horrible assassinations, and at length a cruel war. **Becomes insane.** **Civil war.** The hostile parties, called from their leaders, Armagnacs, and Burgundians, each struggled to obtain the person of the king, and as they obtained it, alternately seized the reigns of government. The dregs of the populace of Paris espoused, with the most ferocious zeal, the parties of the rivals, and unchecked by any authority, committed the most horrid crimes.

While the nation was thus distracted, the English war was renew-

1414.

War with England  
renewed.Henry takes Har-  
fleur.

Battle of Agincourt.

ed. Henry V., now on the throne of England, landed at the mouth of the Seine, and took Harfleur. On the invasion of a foreign enemy, the French, for the moment, suspended their quarrels, and rallied in defence of the kingdom. A French army of fifty thousand men, under the constable D'Albert, posted themselves near the village of Agincourt, to intercept the English on their march. A bloody battle ensued, in which Henry, with an army of only eleven thousand, was completely victorious. In this battle, the national character of the French was ill sustained; a general panic seemed to seize the troops, while the vanquished far outnumbered the victors.

In the mean time, the hostilities of the Burgundian and Armagnac factions were renewed, with more violence than ever, and the massacre of the Armagnacs, and the barbarous assassination of the count, their leader, took place at Paris.—Henry of England, having made himself master of Normandy, was preparing to advance to that city. The young dauphin, who was now at the head of the Armagnac, or Orleans party, affected to seek a reconciliation with the Burgundians. A meeting between him and the duke, surnamed John the Fearless, was appointed on the bridge of Montereau. The duke of Burgundy was murdered by one of the Armagnacs at the moment of kneeling before the dauphin, and probably with the approbation of the prince. The Burgundians, who had the control of Paris, now resolved to unite themselves with the king of England; and Philip, the young duke, hastened to offer to Henry the crown of France. A treaty was concluded between them at Troyes, by which Henry espoused the princess Catharine, daughter of Charles VI., and was declared heir to the French monarchy.

Civil war in France  
renewed.

1420.

Treaty of Troyes.

Henry VI., and was declared heir to the French monarchy.

## SECTION III.

On the death of Charles VI., (preceded, a few months, by that of the king of England,) the dauphin assumed the government, under the title of Charles VII., and appeared again in the field. He was crowned by his partisans at Poitiers; Rheims, the usual place, being in the hands of his enemies. The northern parts of the nation adhered to Henry VI., the infant son of Henry V., whose birth was celebrated with as great rejoicings at Paris as at London; and who was proclaimed king of France and England. The regency of France was committed, on the part of the English, to the duke of Bedford, uncle of the young Henry.

While the English interest in France was supported by the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, the nation, after the death of their monarch, evinced symptoms of returning affection for the amiable Charles, his son. Yet, though the number of his adherents increased; and he received auxiliary troops from Scotland, his treasury was at a low

Charles VII.

Henry proclaimed  
king of France and  
England.

1424.

Battle of Verneuil.

ebb, and his prospects gloomy. The duke of Bedford had obtained a victory over the united French and Scots at Verneuil, which had nearly proved fatal to Charles. Bedford had then besieged Orleans, and the king, hopeless of relieving the city, was about to retire, when his sinking and almost ruined fortunes were retrieved by means of the most singular kind.

Siege of Orleans.

While the English were yet pressing the siege of Orleans, (now considered as a place of greater consequence to either party than any other in France,) a young female presented herself before the king, and declared herself commissioned by God to deliver the city of Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims, there to be crowned and anointed. Her own solemn persuasion of the reality of her mission, which was, she said, communicated in visions, together with the intrepidity of her manner, made an impression of awe, even on the minds of the gay courtiers. The poli-

Joan of Arc.

ticians saw that whether true or false, important use might be made of the heroic Joan of Arc. Yet to increase the effect they meant to produce, they pretended to doubt; and called a council of the clergy, who pronounced her revelations genuine. Clad in steel armour\* from head to foot, and mounted on a noble horse, the maid of Orleans rode forth, bearing her consecrated banner, to take the command of the army. Assured as by a voice from God, the joyful troops followed her into the city. The English affected to laugh, but they were stricken at heart with the fear that haply they were fighting against God. The heroine led the French to repeated attacks, and by continued victories, compelled the English to retire from the city.

She then demanded of the king that he should depart for Rheims, to be crowned. It seemed a mad undertaking, for the country was in the hands of the English. Yet, Charles obeyed the mandate. The English, although the duke of Bedford was indefatigable, could scarcely be prevailed on to offer the little army any annoyance. The cities

1428.

Charles crowned at Rheims.

as they passed, opened their gates; Rheims sent its keys, and Charles entered, was crowned, and anointed with the holy oil, kept since the time of Clovis. Here the maid declared her mission closed; but the French plead for her stay, and she unwisely remained in the camp. At the siege of Compegne, she was taken captive in making

Joan of Arc burnt.

a sally, tried by an English ecclesiastical court for the crime of sorcery, and burnt alive. Her influence was however still felt. Heaven had interposed in behalf of the French, and restored their lawful sovereign; and the nation after such divine interposition, was not slow in returning to its duty.

The party of the English rapidly declined; the death of the duke

1435.

Charles undisturbed monarch of France.

of Bedford gave the finishing blow to their misfortunes, and enabled Charles to obtain entire possession of his kingdom.—The remaining years of his reign were devoted to measures calculated to restore the wasted energies of the kingdom; and were

\* The identical steel armour which she wore, is in the "Musée d'Artillerie" at Paris.

successful in raising it from its long depression to a high state of prosperity and happiness. A standing army was supported by a tax upon the people. This, by rendering it unnecessary to call upon the forces heretofore furnished by the vassals of the crown, prevented the continuance of that relation which had existed between the nobles and their retainers, when called into the field; and facilitated the decay of the feudal policy, now found, in the progress of society, to be destructive in its consequences, both to the government and the people.

**Decay of the feudal system.**  
**1461.**  
**Louis XI.** Louis XI., the son and successor of Charles, gave early indications of that intriguing policy, which characterized his reign. He collected around him as ministers to execute his plans, the most degraded of his subjects. His attempts to humble his vassals, and extend the prerogatives of the crown, caused a war, known by the name of the war of "Public Weal;" which ended in a treaty favourable to his subjects, but which Louis soon infringed. He was long engaged in hostilities with Charles, surnamed "the Bold," duke of Burgundy. None of his wars, however, were of much moment, as he was always eager to negotiate; and if he did not overreach his enemy in the treaty, he scrupled not, on the first occasion, to break it. The war with the duke of Burgundy continued during the life of the latter. On his death, Louis seized part of the dominions of Mary, the daughter and sole heir-ess of the duke, and continued the war with her. At length he obtained by treaty a part of those extensive dominions.

**Louis's cruelty.** Multitudes of the subjects of Louis were sacrificed to his cruelty and treachery.—During his reign, four thousand are estimated to have perished by torture, without any kind of trial. Yet he was himself perpetually tormented by the fear of death, and that punishment thereafter which he well knew that he had merited.

**1483.**  
**Charles VIII.** Louis XI. was succeeded by his son, Charles VIII., who soon after married Anne, the duchess of Brittany, by which that province, the last of the great feudatories of France, was annexed to the crown.

## CHAPTER V.

### ENGLAND.

#### SECTION I.

**1193.**  
**Richard I.** Richard, on the conclusion of the truce with Saladin, hastened his return to his own kingdom, where the intrigues of his brother John, and Philip Augustus, rendered his presence necessary.

But on the arrival of the English monarch in Germany, where, from the enmity of its princes, he was compelled to travel in disguise, he was discovered and made prisoner by the duke of Austria. After a long imprisonment, he was liberated, on condition of paying a ransom equal to 300,000 pounds sterling, to the emperor.

His return to England was welcomed with joyful acclamations by his subjects. His brother John had cause to dread his approach, but Richard, naturally kind hearted, was willing to overlook his misdeeds. "I freely forgive him," said he, "and I hope I may forget his wrongs, as soon as he will my pardon."

Richard was a valorous knight, a jovial companion, but fierce and rash in conduct; he was a bad king, and his reign was unfortunate for his country. His delight was in hard blows, and he received his death wound in storming the castle of a rebellious subject.

On his death, there were two claimants of the English throne; John, who took immediate possession, and Arthur of Brittany, his nephew, son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, the elder brother of Richard and John. John

1199.

John.

defeated the forces of Arthur, took the young prince, and killed him with his own hand. The king of France summoned John, (who was his vassal on account of the dominions he held in France,) to answer for the murder of Arthur, who was also a vassal of the French king; and a court of peers was summoned upon the occasion. John did not appear; the court gave sentence against him, and declared his domains forfeited to the French crown; and Philip Augustus took possession of Normandy, Marne and Anjou, which were ever after alienated from England.

The unnatural murder of his nephew Arthur, and the continued violence and oppressions of which John was guilty, had rendered his character and person odious to his English subjects; while his weakness enabled the people to put forth their claims to those rights of which they had long been deprived. A confederacy including nearly all the nobility of England, demanded the restoration of their ancient laws, and the redress of grievances. To enforce their demands, they made vigorous preparations for war. John found himself compelled to treat with his subjects, and subscribed the charter called the "Magna Charta." Twenty-five of the barons were named as guardians of the liberties of the kingdom, to whom was committed the charge of seeing the provisions of the charter executed.

1215.

Magna Charta.

John, however, did not design to adhere to his engagements, but to gain time for obtaining foreign aid.—He employed in his service mercenary troops from the continent, who, when the armies of the barons were dispersed, entered England and burned and ravaged the country without mercy. The pope took the part of his obedient vassal against his rebellious subjects, declared the engagements of John void, and excommunicated the barons. In their distressed state, the barons also resorted to foreign aid, and offered the crown to Louis, son of Philip Augustus, who entered England with an army.

The death of John, which occurred at this juncture, relieved the

barons from their pressing danger, and drew them by the fear of foreign domination from the interest of Louis. Happily for England, (Henry III, the son of John, being a minor,) the administration was in the hands of the earl of Pembroke, a wise and upright statesman. Louis, having been defeated in a naval battle, fought in the precincts of Dover, entered into a treaty with the regent, renounced his claim to the English throne, and procured indemnity for all his adherents.

These troubles were hardly appeased by the wise measures of the earl of Pembroke, when death deprived the young monarch of his counsels.

The marriage of Henry with Eleanor, the daughter of the count of Provence, introduced into England many foreigners, upon whom the young king lavished favours, and whose haughty demeanour incurred the dislike of the English nobles. Henry's applica-

1236.

Henry III.

Henry confirms the  
Charter.

tion for money to enable him to accomplish an invasion of France, was met by the barons with a demand for the confirmation of the charter, which was granted.—The invasion was fruitless; meanwhile the spirit of disaffection spread through the kingdom. The great charter was again renewed by Henry with the most imposing ceremonies, but he

Parliament at  
Oxford.

1262.

War against the  
king, headed by the  
earl of Leicester.

afterwards disregarding it, a parliament was summoned at Oxford, which confirmed and extended the rights of the people. At the head of the party opposed to the king was Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, who by his talents and address had insinuated himself into the confidence of the people.

A civil war ensued. Leicester obtained possession of the person of the king; and for two years exercised the regal power in his name. Edward, the eldest son of Henry, who had at first joined the party against his father, now took the direction of the royalists, and by the energy of his measures, obtained a victory over the forces of Leicester at Evesham, where that celebrated earl was slain.

Henry acted in many instances like a good man, though he was a weak prince, and unsuited to the troublesome times in which he lived. Although his reign is not considered a glorious one, yet his kingdom, less oppressed by exactions than in the times of warlike sovereigns, increased in wealth, and extended its commerce; the rights of the common

People first repre-  
sented in Parlia-  
ment.

people became more respected, and for the first time they were represented in parliament. After a reign of fifty-six years, Henry left the crown to his son Edward.

The character of Edward was in many respects the reverse of that of his father. Few sovereigns have swayed a

1274.

Edward I.

sceptre with a more vigorous hand, or moved forward with more bodily and mental strength.—In the period which intervened between the battle of Evesham and his father's death, he went, at the summons of the pope, accompanied by his queen, Eleanor of Spain, and a few military followers; not so

much to aid the cause of the Christians, as to behold their defeat in the holy land. Yet he found various occasions for the display of bravery and sagacity. He came near falling the victim of an assassin. An infidel stabbed him in his tent, with a poisoned weapon. The affectionate Eleanor sucked out the poison, nursed and tended him, and he slowly recovered from its effects.

On his return to England, he regulated the affairs of his kingdom; and his aspiring mind conceived the design of uniting in his own person the dominion of the whole island.

The Welsh, under their king Lewellyn, struggled bravely to retain their independence, but were conquered. Lewellyn was slain in battle. His brother, prince David, who had formerly received great favours from Edward, was made prisoner by the English, tried as a traitor, and executed with a barbarity not unfrequent in that cruel age.

1282.

Edward conquers  
Wales.

Meanwhile, events transpired in Scotland which gave to Edward the desired opportunity to interfere in the affairs of that kingdom. Alexander III. died, leaving no other descendant than a granddaughter, Margaret, then about three years of age; the offspring of Eric king of Norway, and Margaret, daughter of Alexander. She was affianced to Edward,\* the young prince of Wales, son of the king of England; under whose protection she was immediately to be placed. The delicate little "maid of Norway" withered like a transplanted flower, and died at the Orkney islands, on her passage to England.

1283.

John Baliol and  
Robert Bruce-

Thirteen claimants to the Scottish crown appeared, but all were soon dismissed, except John Baliol and Robert Bruce.—They were both descendants of the earl of Huntingdon, third son of David, first king of Scotland.—Baliol's claims would at this day have been acknowledged without controversy, as he was descended from the eldest daughter of the earl of Huntingdon, being her grandson; but he was one remove farther from the blood of the Scottish king than Bruce, who was the son of the second daughter of the earl.

Henry II. had compelled William, king of Scotland, whom he had taken prisoner, to do homage for his kingdom. Richard I. renounced this claim. Edward renewed it, nor dared Alexander refuse compliance.†—In virtue of being lord paramount, Edward, on the death of Margaret, summoned the Scottish nobility and clergy to

King of Scotland  
prisoner of the king  
of England.

\* This prince was born in the castle of Caernarvon in the north-western part of Wales, soon after the conquest of that country. The Welsh claimed him as their countryman, and the politic father gave him the title of prince of Wales, a title since borne by the eldest sons of the kings of England.

† On his knees, in presence of the English prelates and barons, he said, "I Alexander, king of Scotland, become the liege man of the lord Edward, king of England, against all men." This may serve as a specimen of what is meant by the phrase "doing homage," so frequently occurring in the history of the feudal times. Several conditions, such as supplying a certain number of troops &c., were generally annexed to this acknowledgment of paramount authority.

meet him at Norham, on the southern bank of the Tweed; where, by his address, he succeeded in inducing them to recognise his supreme authority, and leave to his decision the question of right between Bruce and Baliol. Both the competitors also gave their solemn assent that their claims should be decided by Edward, as sovereign lord of Scotland. After calling much learned counsel to his aid, Edward decided in favour of Baliol.

Baliol, however, soon found the English yoke galling, and his haughty temper being wrought upon by his nobles, he concluded an alliance with France, with which kingdom Edward was at variance, and obtained from the pope a dispensation from the oath of fealty.

## SECTION II.

Edward now commenced hostilities against Scotland. At the head of a powerful army, he crossed the Tweed, defeated the forces of Baliol, reduced the king to submission, and carried him prisoner to England. But the spirit of the Scots, although apparently subdued, was still unbroken.

William Wallace now rose from obscurity. The fame of his bravery, and successful exploits, drew multitudes to his standard, and at length placed him at the head of a considerable army. He defeated the English governor, near Sterling, made himself master of that fortress, and compelled him to retreat into England. Edward, who had concluded a peace with France, turned his whole strength upon Scotland. He defeated the Scots at Falkirk, proceeded to the northern parts of the kingdom, and for a time, again subjected it to his power. Wallace still maintained his independence, but was betrayed to Edward by his pretended friend, Sir John Monteith, and suffered on Tower Hill at London, the cruel death of a traitor.

The Scots, indignant at the cruelty exercised upon their hero, determined to avenge it. They found a leader in Robert Bruce, grandson of the competitor of Baliol; who succeeded to his father's claims, and now prepared to vindicate them. He had served in the English army, but fleeing from the court of Edward, he was received by the Scots, and crowned as their lawful sovereign.

For sometime Bruce waged an unsuccessful war, and was reduced to such extremity that he was compelled to flee to the western isles and secrete himself, while his friends and adherents were subjected to the vengeance of the exasperated English. After passing a winter in concealment, Bruce returned to Scotland, where his prospects began to brighten. After alternate success and defeat, he was released from the immediate dread of the English arms.



Edward II. died just as he arrived in Scotland at the head of a large army. Edward II., his successor, withdrew his forces, or left them under lieutenants, contrary to his father's dying commands.—The reign of this weak prince was disgraced by his subserviency to the worthless favourites whom he kept around him. After withdrawing his armies from Scotland, he surrendered himself to the control of Piers Gaveston, a Gascon, whom his father had required him to banish.—His nobles, disaffected with his retreat from Scotland, and enraged at beholding unlimited honours and riches lavished upon a foreigner, revolted, and placed at their head, Thomas, earl of Lancaster, cousin of the king. Edward was at length compelled to yield his favourite to the public indignation. The surrender of Gaveston, for a time, appeased the public resentment, and the renewal of the Scottish war gave some popularity to the king.

Revolt under the  
earl of Lancaster.

Scottish war renewed.

Robert Bruce had availed himself of the events in England, to strengthen his power. His authority was now acknowledged throughout Scotland, and with the exception of a few fortresses, all the conquests of the English had been recovered. He now prepared to resist the arms of Edward. His army, assembled in the county of Sterling, was much inferior to the English, but rendered intrepid by the knowledge that they must fight for their homes, and their independence.—Edward himself headed the English. The Scots

1314.

Battle of Bannockburn.

had made careful preparations for the action, and chosen well the battle field,—the memorable plain of Bannockburn. The armies were in sight of each other when the Scots knelt to implore the blessing of heaven, and to receive the benediction of their venerable priests. Edward, who had expressed his doubts whether they would “abide battle,” on beholding the army in this posture of supplication, exclaimed joyfully, “they crave mercy.” “It is from heaven, not from your highness,” replied Umfraville, a Scotchman in the English service; “on that field, they will either win, or die.” His prediction was fulfilled; the English were defeated, and driven into their own kingdom.

After this unsuccessful campaign against the Scotch, the peace of England was again disturbed by the jealousies of the nobility towards the favourites of the king. Hugh Spencer was now the object of the royal favour, and of the nation's jealousy. This favourite, and his father, were banished, but were shortly after recalled, and a civil war ensued. A truce was concluded with Scotland for thirteen years, and the

Civil war in England.

queen Isabella, the beautiful but unprincipled sister of the king of France, returned to her native country to settle disputes which had arisen between her brother, and her husband, Edward II. In France, Isabella united her influence with the members of the Lancastrian faction, with whose chief, Mortimer, she carried on an intrigue, conspired against her husband, and re-embarking for England, she

landed at Orewell in Suffolk. The disaffected barons of England flocked to her standard, and Edward found himself nearly deserted.

**1327.** The Spencers were made prisoners and executed.  
 The queen summoned a parliament which deposed Edward, on the ground of incapacity for governing.

His son, Edward III., was placed upon the throne; and the regency committed to the queen.—The deposed monarch was carried from place to place, till at length he was confined in Berkley castle, on the little Avon. The vassals one night heard dreadful shrieks from his apartment, and the next morning his death was announced; and no one doubted that he had been murdered.—The nation was not long deluded by the pretences of Isabella and Mortimer, who still kept the young prince under their control. A conspiracy, to which he was privy, was formed, which succeeded in delivering him from the power of the

**1332.** regency. Mortimer was taken and executed.  
 Mortimer executed. Isabella was spared from regard to her rank, but remained a prisoner. She was held in contempt for her vices, during the rest of her life; but received in her confinement, annual visits from her son.

### SECTION III.

While these events were transpiring in England, Scotland had passed from the vigorous hand of Robert Bruce, to David Bruce. his son David, a minor. The powerful lord Douglas, at one time, the support of the throne of Bruce, was absent, and the regency was committed to the earl of Mar.—Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, took this opportunity of advancing his claim to the Scottish throne, and was supported by the king of England. He collected an army which defeated that of Bruce, at Halidown hill. Bruce was forced to take refuge in France. A Scottish parliament was called, who recognized Baliol as their sovereign, and some of the nobles took the oath of fealty.

Soon, however, the attachment of the Scots to their former monarch, and their inveterate animosity towards the English, by whom Baliol was supported, revived the party of Bruce, and the contest was renewed. A second and a third invasion by Edward, failed of establishing Baliol on the throne.

Meanwhile the attention of the English monarch was called from the Scottish affairs by the prospect of obtaining the French crown.

**1346.** Edward assumed the title of king of France, landed in Antwerp, from whence he proceeded thither.  
 Edward invades France. The result of the first campaign was not decisive, and Edward returned to his kingdom to make more

**Battle of Cressy.** vigorous preparations for another war. From the period of Edward's first embarkation, to his victory at Cressy, eight years elapsed without any important advantage gained on either side. After this victory  
**1347.** Edward proceeded to Calais, which, after a well  
**Calais surrenders.** sustained siege, capitulated.

During this war, David Bruce had returned from France to Scotland, and carried his arms into the north of England, where he was defeated and made prisoner by the queen, Philippa.

At the expiration of the truce which succeeded the surrender of Calais, the war with France, where John had succeeded Philip of Valois, was renewed by the valiant prince of Wales, called the Black Prince, who governed the English territories on the continent. His arms were attended with signal success, and at the battle of Poitiers, he defeated a French army greatly superior in force, and made

**Battle of Poitiers.** king John prisoner. Another truce of two years followed this battle, when the monarch entered into a treaty, by which

**1360.** Edward renounced his pretensions to the crown of  
**Treaty of peace.** France, but obtained the full sovereignty of the ancient English possessions, and recent conquests in France, together with a liberal ransom for the French monarch.

The differences between England and Scotland were settled by the death of Edward Baliol, and the recognition of Edward Bruce as its monarch, by the English king. The Black Prince was entrusted by his father with the sovereignty of the provinces of Aquitaine and Gascony. The remaining years of Edward's reign were less glorious to England. The health of the Black Prince failed during an expedition which he had undertaken to Spain, to reinstate upon his throne "Peter the Cruel."—After his return to England, the nation was unable to preserve its continental conquests. The French renewed the

**French renew the war.** war, and recovered nearly all which the English had taken from them.—The death of the Prince of

Wales, was shortly followed by that of his father. After the death of his queen, Philippa of Hainault, Edward kept about his person one Alice Perrars, to whose care and mercy, he was abandoned when a mortal disease was upon him. She removed him to Shene, and the morning before his death, robbed him of the very ring upon his finger, and departed. The other servants left him, to plunder the house; and he who had been the most powerful monarch of his age, would have breathed his last sigh alone, had not a priest chanced to come in. He admonished him of his situation. Edward thanked him, wept, and expired.

**Miserable death of Edward III.**

## SECTION IV.

Edward III. was succeeded by Richard II., son of the Black Prince, then in his thirteenth year. On account

1377.

Richard II.

of his minority, the administration was entrusted to his uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; the latter of whom had a controlling ascendancy in the government. Richard became the dupe of favourites, upon whom he lavished treasures and honours, and by his indolence and dissipation, alienated the affections of his subjects. The duke of Gloucester headed a party opposed to the king's favourites, and successfully courted the favour of the people.

In 1381 there broke out a revolt of the lower classes.—The true cause of this insurrection is easily found in the

1381.

Insurrection of Wat  
Tyler.

increasing spirit of independence among the oppressed people. In Dartford, fifteen miles from London, a tax gatherer insulted the daughter of a blacksmith. The enraged father slew him by a blow on the head, with his hammer. To shield him from the consequences of the act, and to avenge their own cause, his neighbours rallied around him. They took their way to London, their numbers increasing as they went on. They entered the place, where they burned the duke of Lancaster's palace, murdered those of the higher orders who fell into their hands, and pillaged the wealthy parts of the city. At Smithfield, Richard, then in his seventeenth year, had a conference with Wat Tyler of Maidstone, whom the insurgents had placed at their head. Wat showed evident signs of an intention to stab the young king. Walworth, mayor of London, hasted forward, thrust a small-sword into his throat, and he fell. The archers drew their bows to avenge his death. Richard rode intrepidly up to them, and spoke like a king; "What are you doing my lieges? Wat was a traitor; come with me, and I will be your leader." The rabble, disconcerted and overawed, followed him as he rode off the field. The nobility had been meantime collecting with their followers. The insurgents, on their knees implored the king's mercy; and, influenced by the wishes of the royalists, Richard granted it, and they returned to their homes, only two of the leaders being executed.

From this period when the warm-hearted and elegant young king had given such happy presages of a good reign, we see him by degrees become the victim of a situation which, however desirable it may seem, tends to ruin the character, and blight the happiness of the individual. Richard's ambitious uncles placed around him young men from whose influence they thought they had nothing to fear. To keep him from politics, they encouraged the disposition to pleasure natural to his age. When he became attached to these young men, and granted them favours and emoluments; and when his pleasures became expensive, they charged him with favouritism and extravagance, fomented discontents against him, and raised so

powerful a party that they deprived him of all his friends ; some of whom were sentenced to death, and executed. Richard was obliged to learn dissimulation. He quietly remained a mere cypher, while the duke of Gloucester and his party governed in his name. In the meantime, the excitement subsided, and some of the adherents of Gloucester privately offered their services to the king, and Richard again extricated himself by a bold stroke.

In a great council held after Easter, he unexpectedly asked his uncle his age.—“Your highness,” said the duke, “is in your twenty second year.” “Then,” said the king, “I must be old enough to manage my own concerns ; I thank you my lords for your past services, but do not need them longer.” He

1287.

Richard assumes the government in person.

immediately demanded the seals from the arch-bishop of York ; and the keys of the exchequer from the bishop of Hereford ; and proceeded to appoint new officers. Gloucester was obliged to yield ; and Richard continued for several years to govern with discretion ; and harmony prevailed among all ranks. At length, forgetting the lesson taught by adversity, that there were other laws than his own will, he gave himself up to the gratification of revengeful feelings. Jealousies had always existed between him and his uncle Gloucester.

Gloucester murdered.

The latter was suddenly arrested and sent to Calais, where he was secretly murdered.

The dukes of Gloucester and Lancaster had been opposed to each other, and the house of Lancaster was now without a rival in the affections of the people. Not long after the death of Gloucester, Henry, duke of Hereford, son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, was arrested on the charge of holding language disrespectful to the

Duke of Hereford arrested and banished.

king, and sentenced to banishment from the realm for ten years.—On the death of the duke of Lancaster, Richard seized his immense estates. These acts of Richard deprived him of the confidence of his friends, and every one feared that in his turn he might become the victim of lawless power.

Richard being absent from England on an expedition into Ireland,

1399.

Insurrection of Lancaster and York.

Hereford, now duke of Lancaster, landed in England, was joined by many of the powerful nobles, and soon collected a large army ; his ostensible object being to claim his inheritance. The duke of York, who was regent of the kingdom in the absence of Richard, joined the party of Lancaster, who now obtained possession of the capitol. The ministers of Richard were made prisoners, tried by a military court, condemned, and executed as traitors.

When Richard learned the news of the general insurrection in his kingdom, he was overwhelmed with grief, but made immediate preparation for his return. He landed in Wales, where he remained some time without forces sufficient to cope with his adversaries. At length the duke of Lancaster, under pretence of negotiation, obtained possession of the king's person. Richard was taken to London. So fallen were his fortunes, that as he passed through the

streets, "no man cried, God bless him." He renounced the crown, whether voluntarily or not, is uncertain. The parliament deposed him for tyranny and misconduct, and decided that he should be kept a prisoner. He died in the castle of Pontefract. The circumstances of his death are not known, though there are grounds for suspicion that violence was used.

## SECTION V.

The duke of Hereford, now of Lancaster, was raised to the throne, under the title of Henry IV. His reign was soon disturbed by the insurrection of the Percies, in the north, and of Owen Glendower, in Wales. The northern insurrection was quelled by the battle of Shrewsbury, in which the revoltors were defeated; and Percy, (called Hotspur, from his fiery temper,) the son of the earl of Northumberland, was killed. The valorous Owen Glendower so long maintained the contest in Wales, and with such unequal forces, that he was suspected of being a magician.

The claims by which Henry IV. maintained possession of the throne, were calculated to make him pay court to the parliament, and their privileges were enlarged during his reign.

His son, Henry of Monmouth, was made prince of Wales, and acknowledged as heir to the crown; to which he succeeded, on the death of his father, under the title of Henry V.

The youth of this prince, with the exception of occasional flashes of valour, and a few acts of wisdom, was spent in frolics and dissipation, amidst dissolute companions.

On his accession to the crown, the idlers who had surrounded him expected to be promoted; and the wise, who had rebuked his youthful follies, to be persecuted. But the man, (as often happens,) saw with different eyes from the boy; and while he dismissed the former, he advanced the latter.

Under the reign of Richard, Wickliffe, the first of the Reformers in England, commenced preaching against the prevailing corruptions of the Romish church; and his sentiments had spread extensively through the kingdom. Laws had been enacted against his followers, as heretics, in the reign of Henry IV., and one of their ministers burned at the stake; yet the sect increased, and under the name of Lollards, they formed an extensive party in the realm. The proceedings against them now drove them into open rebellion. They were, however, dispersed, and their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, of Cobham,\* was executed.

\* Fuller, an early English historian, asserts that Sir John Oldcastle was the original of Shakspeare's Falstaff.

Henry now renewed the claim of the Plantaganets to the crown of France; the distracted state of that kingdom, under Charles V., offering a prospect of success. At the head of a powerful army he invaded France, laid siege to Harfleur, which he soon reduced, and terminated his first campaign by the battle of Agincourt, where the English obtained a memorable victory. By the success of his arms, and by treaties with the Burgundian faction, Henry made himself master of the capital, and of a large portion of France; married the princess Catharine, daughter of the French king, and was acknowledged heir of that monarchy. Charles was reinstated on the throne, but was merely a nominal king, while the real authority was in the hands of the English sovereign.

Henry invades  
France.

1414.

Victory of Agin-  
court.

Henry V. died in France, his son Henry VI. being yet an infant.

1421.

Henry VI.

Before his death, he appointed the duke of Gloucester to the regency of England, and the duke of Bedford to that of France. The decay of the English power in that kingdom, connected with the story of the Maid of Orleans, has already been related.

In character, Henry VI. was free from vice; mild and forgiving, but he was destitute of capacity.—At the age of twenty-five, on the suggestion of his council, he bethought himself of marriage; and Margaret, daughter of Rene or Regnier, titular king of Sicily, and duke of Anjou, was chosen as his bride. Margaret was beautiful in person; and had she found a protector in her husband (to whom she appears to have been ever an affectionate and faithful wife) she might, perhaps, have been feminine in character. But she was obliged to be the supporter of one whose mind, naturally weak, at times sunk into utter imbecility. History presents her as a masculine woman, coping with the most able politicians and military commanders of her day.

Henry marries  
Margaret of Anjou.

1455.

War between the  
houses of York and  
Lancaster.

When Henry IV. succeeded to the sovereignty on the deposition of Richard II., who died without issue, there were still living some of the descendants of the duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt; and whose claim was, consequently, superior to that of the Lancastrian family. This right had now descended to Richard, duke of York, through his mother, the last of the descendants of Clarence. The opposition to the queen and her ministry, had procured from the parliament the appointment of this nobleman as regent, or protector of the kingdom; but the transient restoration of the king to health, again transferred the power to the queen's party. The Yorkists resorted to arms, and a civil war commenced, which, for thirty years, desolated the land.—This was termed "the war of the roses," the Lancaster party assuming the red, and the Yorkists the white rose. This war comprehends one of the most disastrous periods of English history. By repeated battles and executions, the kingdom was deluged with blood, and some of the noblest families in the realm were nearly exterminated. In the first battle,

at St. Albans, where the Yorkists were triumphant, they obtained possession of the person of the king, induced him to grant a general pardon, and to reinstate the duke of York in office.

A change however was again effected by the management of the court party, and York dismissed by the king.—Three years now elapsed before hostilities were again renewed.

The peace-loving king sought to reconcile all differences, and the parties in the quarrel agreed to a reconciliation. Henry with his whole court went in procession to the cathedral of St. Pauls, and at his desire, the duke of York walked with the queen. But hatred was still in their hearts, and cabals and stratagems led to the accustomed resort to arms. A battle was fought at Bloreheath in Staffordshire, in which victory declared for the Lancastrians. The Yorkists were entirely defeated, and the duke compelled to take refuge in Ireland.

Meanwhile another sudden reverse of fortune took place. The earl of Warwick, who was governor of Calais, had espoused the cause of the duke of York; and now landed with his forces at Kent. Advancing towards the capital, his army constantly augmented. He entered, and took possession of London, and of the person of the king.—A parliament was summoned, which decided that Henry VI. should possess the crown, during his life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, and in the meantime, be entrusted with the administration of the government.—The queen, with her young son, had retired into the north of the kingdom, where she had gathered a considerable army. York marched against her, but was defeated, and slain at Wakefield-green, one hundred and twenty-four miles north of London. His principal followers were taken and executed.

1460.

York slain.

## SECTION VI.

Edward, earl of March, the son of York, inherited his title, and prosecuted his claims. He was victorious in a battle fought between his forces and the queen's army, at St. Albans. Margaret, who was now joined by her husband, retired into the north of England, where her greatest strength lay, and Edward IV. was proclaimed king in London. The war now raged with increasing violence. The armies of Edward and Margaret soon met near Towton, a few miles from York; where was fought the most memorable battle which had yet occurred during the contest. The forces of Edward amounted to 40,000, while the Lancastrians numbered 60,000. The fight continued at intervals during three days, and resulted in the entire discomfiture of the Lancastrian army. Thirty-six thousand Englishmen are said to have fallen in the battle.

1461.

Edward IV.

Battle of Towton.



Margaret fled with her husband, and her son the young prince, to seek friends in Scotland. She next sought aid from

Margaret flees to  
Scotland.

Louis XI. of France, and after an absence of two years, returned with a small body of French, which was augmented by her Scottish allies. At the

1464.

Battle of Hexham.

head of these forces, she again met her enemies, but was defeated at Hexham near the Tyne, and, with her husband and son, again compelled to flee.

Henry, after being secreted in the borders of Scotland some time, was made prisoner, and confined in the tower.

1465.

Henry made prisoner.

Margaret, and the young prince Edward, made their escape to the continent. The duke of York was now triumphant. A short period of comparative quiet succeeded these events. The Lancastrians without a chief, and every where defeated and humbled, were incapable of offering any effectual resistance to the government of Edward. Scotland and France manifested a desire of reconciliation with the ruling monarch of England.

Edward had now the misfortune, or the indiscretion, to offend his most powerful adherent, the earl of Warwick; styled the "king maker." While the earl was on the continent, negotiating a marriage between Edward and the princess of Savoy, sister in law of Louis XI., Edward accidentally meeting with the lady Elizabeth Gray, of the family of Wydeville, was so pleased with her, that he privately married her, and soon publicly acknowledged her as his queen. The earl of Warwick highly resented this conduct, which interfered with the negotiation in which he was engaged. The promotion of the queen's family to places of honour and trust, still farther alienated the mind of this haughty noble, as well as others of his former friends.

They conspired against him, and soon engaged in open rebellion.

Warwick joins the  
queen.

An union was effected between them and the Lancastrian party, and Margaret and Warwick, from being the most implacable of enemies, became friends.

Warwick left Calais, of which he was governor; landed in England, and produced so general a revolt, that Edward was obliged to flee to Holland. With the aid of the Flemings, however, he returned to England, encountered his enemy at Barnet near London,

1471.

Warwick slain in  
the battle of Barnet.

where a battle was fought, in which the army of Warwick was defeated, and himself left dead on the field. The same day, Margaret with her French forces arrived in England, and another battle was fought at Tewksbury. Margaret suffered an entire defeat.

Queen defeated at  
Tewksbury.

Her son, prince Edward, was made prisoner, and brutally murdered by some of the highest nobles in the realm. This battle closed the bloody war,

and while it secured the crown to Edward, restored tranquillity, at least for a time, to the kingdom. The husband of Margaret, Henry

Henry VI. dies in  
the tower.

VI., who had never been more than a nominal king, expired in the tower, soon after the battle of Tewksbury. His death has been charged upon Richard of Gloucester. The resolute, persevering, but un-

fortunate Margaret, was kept for years a prisoner, but at length ransomed, when she returned to the court of her father.

Edward next made preparations to invade France. A treaty, advantageous to England, was the result. Negotiations between the English and French monarchs became frequent during the remainder of this reign, in which the crafty Louis usually outwitted his rival. The profligacy of Edward, during the last years of his reign, hastened the period of his death.

His son Edward, a youth of thirteen, was declared his successor ;

1483.

Edward V.

but his immediate coronation was postponed through the intrigues of his hypocritical uncle, Richard, duke of Gloucester. A large party of the ancient nobility had manifested a jealousy of the rising fortunes of the Wydevilles, the queen's relatives. Of this faction, Richard now availed himself for the execution of his sinister designs. On the death of his brother, he hastened to assume the title of protector of the kingdom. Having made himself master of the young king, he next lured, by fair pretences, his younger brother, the duke of York, from the arms of his weeping mother. He then removed all the nobles who were likely to prove an obstacle to his usurpation. The earl of Rivers, and the Wydevilles, Lords Stanley and Hastings, were executed on the same day, and without the form of trial.

Richard then caused the young princess to be declared illegitimate ;

1483.

Richard III.

after which, he was declared king by the obsequious parliament. In the meantime, the two royal boys, who were confined in the tower, disappeared. No inquiry was made concerning them, but all supposed that they were murdered by Richard's commands.\*

The duke of Buckingham, who had been an instrument of Rich-

Contest for the  
throne.

ard's elevation, perceiving the general detestation with which his crimes inspired the nation, turned against him. Henry, earl of Richmond, a descendant of Owen Tudor, and the dowager queen of Henry V., was, on his mother's side, descended from John of Gaunt. In the general destruction of the Lancastrian family, he remained the only surviving chief of that party, and was now in exile on the continent. To him the attention of the Lancastrians was directed, and a deep laid conspiracy was formed to dethrone the usurper, and to elevate the earl of Richmond to the throne. To unite the parties of York and Lancaster, the plan was formed, of marrying him to the eldest daughter of Edward V., Elizabeth, who inherited the claim of the York family. Richard discovered the conspiracy, seized the duke of Buckingham who was at its head, and executed him with some of his accomplices.

Richard, having defeated this design, ventured to summon a parliament. They acknowledged his right to the crown, and created his son Edward prince of Wales. To strengthen his title, Richard

\* By the confessions of the assassins afterwards made, it appears that these two lovely boys, of the ages of thirteen and eleven, were strangled in their bed, as they were sleeping together, in a room in the tower ; and their bodies buried under the stairs. The wooden chest containing their remains was afterwards discovered.

took measures (his wife being yet alive,) for marrying his niece, Elizabeth, the heiress of the house of York. Meanwhile the earl of Richmond determined upon invading England. He embarked at Harfleur in Normandy, with about 2,000 men, and landed at Milford-Haven in Wales, where he was received with the most favourable regard. The number of his followers was rapidly augmented by the Welch, who at once espoused his cause. Richard had been energetic in his measures for repelling the invasion which was expected, but could place no reliance upon his subjects, to whom he was odious ; nor depend upon the fidelity of those nobles

1485.

Richard slain in the  
battle of Bosworth  
field.

who openly espoused his cause. The adverse armies met at Bosworth field near the river Trent. The detestable Richard was slain in the battle, and the nation rejoiced in his death.

The earl of Richmond was crowned on the field and saluted king of England. The subsequent marriage of Henry

Henry VII.

with Elizabeth, united the Lancastrian and York factions ; and parliament added their sanction to his authority.

Henry VII. reigned twenty-one years. He was subtle and penetrating, and vigorous in his measures for defeating the designs of his enemies. But the leading feature of his character was avarice. To get money, he often stooped to falsehood, and low artifices.

During his reign several impostors appeared, who attempted to personate the two sons of Edward IV. The first

1486.

Simmel and War-  
beck, impostors.

was Lambert Simmel, who pretended that he was the young king ; and afterwards, Perkin Warbeck, who set himself up for the duke of York ; and marvellous accounts were given of their escape from the tower, and many friends to their cause appeared.—This reign is also

1492.

America discovered.

memorable as being the period of the discovery of America. Henry was the sovereign under whose banners that part of the continent which we inhabit, was discovered by the Venetian captains, John and Sebastian Cabot.

## CHAPTER VI.

### SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

At the epoch at which this period of our history commences, the Christian kings of Spain had extended their empire,

1085.

Contests with the  
Moors.

and wrested from the Moors many important possessions. The arms of the Cid had already recovered New Castile and Valencia, for his master Alphonso, king of Castile. After his death, the wars still continued. The king of Navarre and Arragon, took Saragossa. He bequeathed his kingdom to the knights Templar, but his subjects disregarding

his will, chose a king for themselves. Arragon chose one, and Navarre another, thus by division weakening their power. The Moors taking advantage of this, renewed their hostilities, when the Christians called in the aid of the king of Castile, Alphonso VII., who rescued them from their perils, and received in recompense the city of Saragossa, and the homage of the king of Navarre.—The count of Portugal about this time had assumed the name of king, and received from the pope a confirmation of his title to that part of the peninsula.

A union of the Moors of Africa, with those of Andalusia, now threatened the overthrow of the Christian kingdom, and the re-establishment of the Mahometan power in Spain. The kings of Castile, Arragon, and Navarre, united, and received aid from the king of Portugal. Mahomet Ben Joseph, with his Moorish forces, was defeated in the Sierra Morena. The Moorish power on the peninsula might now have been entirely crushed, but the Christians delayed to push the advantages obtained. But the strength of the Moors was diminished, and the dissensions which existed among them, prevented their molesting the Christians. Under the succeeding monarchs of the Spanish kingdoms, however, place after place was taken from them by the Moorish sovereigns.

Ferdinand III. united the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, and conquered the cities of Cordova and Seville. From his reign,

1230.

Leon and Castile  
united.

and that of the cotemporary sovereign, James I. of Arragon, who made the conquest of the Balearic isles, and of the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia,

the efforts of the Christians for the delivery of the peninsula became more feeble. Their princes were much occupied with rebellions and civil wars, and the Moors received aid, when ever they needed, from their Mahometan brethren of Africa. Thus for nearly a century their destruction was delayed.

Two hundred and fifty years elapsed from the conquests of Ferdinand III., and James I., to the united reign of Ferdinand and Isabella.

1309.

Algesiras and Gibraltar  
conquered.

The century which passed from the reign of Ferdinand III., to that of "Peter the Cruel," with the exception of the conquests of Algesiras and Gibraltar, presents no events in the history of Spain, which require to be here mentioned. Alphonso XI., of

Peter the Cruel.

Castile, conquered Algesiras. He was succeeded on the throne by his son Peter I., whose enormities procured him the appellation of "the Cruel." Henry of Trastamara, his natural brother, was driven into rebellion by his severities, and by the apprehension of his own destruction.

The French monarch, Charles V., enraged by the murder of the queen of Castile, Blanche of Bourbon, a French princess, perpetrated by Peter her husband, espoused the interests of Henry, and sent Du Guesclin, a famous commander, at the head of a considerable body of French soldiers, to his aid. Peter was driven from his kingdom, and took refuge with Edward, the Black Prince, then governing the English principality of Aquitaine. This prince made it a point of honour to reinstate the deposed monarch, who had solicited

his aid. At the head of his army, he advanced into Castile, defeated the French and Castilians, who warmly espoused the interests of Henry, and restored Peter to the throne.

His cruelties soon produced another rebellion. Du Guesclin, who had been made prisoner in the former defeat, but was ransomed, returned, with a recruited army, to the aid of Henry. The tyrant, now abandoned by the Black Prince, soon lost his crown and his life, and Henry was made king.

1369.

Henry.

Under the descendants of this monarch, Castile presents no memorable transaction for nearly a century. This quiet ceased on the death of John II. His son, Henry IV., who was seated on the throne of Castile, in the middle of the fifteenth century, rendered himself odious by his effeminate and voluptuous life. His subjects rebelled, deposed him, and proclaimed his brother, Alphonso, king. Henry raised a party, and a bloody civil war ensued.

1452.

Henry IV.

Alphonso.

1469.

Isabella.

1479.

Ferdinand and Isabella.

1492.

Conquest of Grenada.—Discovery of America.

Alphonso dying, the claims of his noble sister Isabella, (afterwards the patroness of Columbus,) were substituted, and Henry was compelled by his subjects, to sign a treaty declaring her heiress of the throne. Isabella, not long after this, married Ferdinand, son of the king of Arragon, and heir to that crown.—These sovereigns united in their persons the kingdoms of Castile and Leon, Arragon, and afterwards that of Sicily. Their reign is memorable in history, for the final expulsion of the Moors from Spain, and the conquest of Grenada; and still more for the encouragement afforded to an enterprise of immense importance, which opened to the inhabitants of the eastern hemisphere, a new world.

## CHAPTER VII.

### ITALY.

#### SECTION I.

Italy was at this period divided between the republics in the northern and central parts, the temporal sovereignty of the pope, and the kingdom of Naples. The republics which occupied the northern parts of Italy, may be divided into four clusters. The first was composed of the cities of central Lombardy, of which Milan was the principal. This group included Milan, Cremona, Pavia, Brescia, Bergamo, Parma, Placenza, Mantua, Lodi, and Alexandria. These were the original seats of

Italian liberty. In the second, may be placed the cities Verona, Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso. The cities of Romagna, of which Bologna and Ferrara were of most consequence, composed a third cluster; to which may be added Modena. A fourth, comprised the cities of Tuscany, of which Florence and Pisa were the chief.

Besides these, were the two maritime republics of Genoa and Venice. These cities did not all at once throw off their allegiance to the empire, or adopt a republican government. Milan took the lead.

The disorders which happened in the German empire during the eleventh century, enabled the citizens of the Italian cities to choose their own magistrates, and to take a share in all public deliberations. As these cities increased in wealth and strength, a residence in them became a desirable refuge from the dangers in which the disordered state of affairs placed the rural gentry. The nobility of the country were themselves oppressed by the cities, and glad to take refuge in them; where, as they were privileged with citizenship, they could attain the power of directing the government. As their strength increased, the desire of extending their power, and the limits of their territories, increased with it; this produced encroachments upon the small towns, and upon the territories of the country nobility. Early in the twelfth century, a war was carried on between Milan and Lodi, in which the latter was subjected to the former. Wars continued to be prosecuted between many of these cities.

Meanwhile Frederic Barbarossa of Germany, attempted to regain his empire in Italy; which, though still acknowledged, existed but in name. Availing himself of the war between Milan and Lodi, and of the jealousies felt by many of the cities towards the former place, Frederic attacked the towns in dependence upon Milan. After two invasions of Italy, the inhabitants of Milan were compelled by famine to capitulate. Frederic held a diet at Roncaglia, where he defined the imperial rights, appointed magistrates, called Podesta, to administer justice; and in many of the cities, abolished the office of consuls, who were chosen by the people. The Milanese, irritated at this tyranny, as soon as the emperor had withdrawn his army, renewed the war. The small town of Crema, a dependent of Milan, first experienced the rage of Frederic. Milan was next besieged, and, subdued by famine, surrendered. The citizens were compelled to disperse themselves to four villages a few miles distant, while their habitations were razed to the ground. The misery of the cities of Lombardy was now complete. Even those which had enlisted in the service of the emperor, felt that they had sacrificed their liberties to their hatred of a rival town.

1152.  
Frederick Barbarossa attempts to re-subject the Italian Republics.

Milan destroyed.

Meanwhile the emperor had met with a repulse at Verona, against which he had next carried his arms. The spirit of liberty revived; a secret league was formed among the Lombard cities, termed the Lombard league, by which they pledged themselves to mutual assistance in defence of their common rights, for a period of twenty years. Milan, by their united efforts,

was quickly rebuilt, and the confederates prepared to withstand the arms of Frederic, whose strength had been reduced by a contest with pope Alexander III., during which, in laying siege to Rome, he lost a large part of his army by pestilence.

The war, now commenced, continued many years without any decisive action, until in the battle of Legnano, a small town near Milan, the confederates obtained a splendid victory. Frederic escaped from the field in disguise; and was obliged to treat with his rebellious subjects. By the mediation of Venice, a truce of six years was agreed upon. After this, the peace of Constance was concluded, by which the Lombard republics were established in their rights. The league was renewed; but unfortunately no federal union was formed.

During the reign of Frederic II., grandson of Frederic Barbarossa, these republics were plunged into another protracted war, and became entirely emancipated from the empire.—The liberties of the people were, however, gradually sacrificed to the ambition of the aristocracy. Milan fell into the power of the Visconti, while principalities of second rank were formed in the smaller towns; so that in the close of the thirteenth century, there were almost as many princes in the north of Italy, as there had been free cities in the preceding age. The cities of Tuscany continued longer than those of Lombardy, under the imperial government. Of these cities, Florence, the most important, was often the scene of bitter dissensions and cruel factions. She waged wars with Genoa and Pisa, the latter of which she conquered. Early in the fourteenth century, the family of the Medici came into note in Florence, and by the middle of the fifteenth, completely established itself in the sovereign power, which became hereditary.

## SECTION II.

The temporal sovereignty of the pope was at this time fully established over the dominions belonging to the Roman see. The emperor Rodolph, of Germany, gave up his claim, and the pope now held the relation to Italy, formerly claimed by the emperor; but the city of Rome itself often revolted from his government. The remembrance of the glory of their ancestors, at times enkindled the spirit of freedom in the breasts of the degenerate Romans; and it had often burst forth in resistance to the power of the pope. Several times, the holy father was expelled the city.

During the residence of the popes at Avignon, in France, no authority of sufficient power existed at Rome, to curb the licentious citizens; and disorders of every kind were frequent. At different periods, individuals arose who roused the popular feeling by eloquent

harangues, in which they depicted the blessings of liberty, and recounted the names of the officers of the ancient republic. One of these orators, Arnold of Brescia, advocated boldly the principles of civil liberty, and was banished by Innocent II., who branded his doctrine as the "heresy of the politicians." He was subsequently recalled to Rome, and burned at the stake.

1139.

Arnold of Brescia.

After him, Nicholas di Rienzi conceived the project of restoring liberty to Rome. The insurrection was for a time

1346.

Insurrection under  
Nicholas di Rienzi.

successful. Rienzi was placed at the head of the government, with the title of tribune. The benefits of his government were immediately felt. The tumults and disorders of the city were quelled, and tranquillity restored. Rienzi, however, was soon compelled to quit the government, and become an exile. Rome now returned to her obedience to the popes. But while they resided at Avignon, and during the schism of the church, the city at times enjoyed some degree of political freedom.

Genoa, in the commencement of the 13th century, had attained considerable importance, and its commerce was in

1261.

Genoa.

a flourishing state. Its prosperity was greatly increased by the settlement of Pera, in the suburbs of Constantinople, which the Genoese obtained from the Greeks, in reward of their services in the recovery of that city. Genoa maintained frequent wars with Pisa, and with Venice, its rival in trade. Its internal history is marked by frequent contests between its leading families. After several changes of government, it submitted to that of a duke, or doge, and was finally placed under the protection of the king of France.

1471.

The republic of Venice had been early founded, and in the revolutions which overthrew the Roman empire, escaped by its insignificance. At the period of the crusades,

Venice.

it had attained considerable wealth, and was a maritime power of the first consequence. Its assistance to the crusaders in conveying them to Palestine, was rewarded by the commerce which they obtained with the east. But the period of the commencement of its prosperity and splendour was the thirteenth century. Having sustained an important part in the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins, it obtained three eighths of the city, and of the provinces, as its reward. The government of Venice was administered by a doge, or duke, who as early as the eighth century, exercised the power of a king. Subsequently his authority was limited, and at length it very little exceeded that of the other nobles; and the government became in the latter part of the 13th century, an oppressive aristocracy.

In the latter part of the 14th century, Venice was engaged in wars with her neighbours, and proving generally successful, her prosperity increased. The fifteenth century is the most splendid period in her annals. During it she extended her dominion over Padua and Verona, and obtained from the duke of Milan, the cession of Vicenza.



After the extinction of Robert Guiscard's posterity, the son and successor of Roger, his younger brother, king of Sicily, added to his dominions the Norman possessions of Apulia and Calabria, subdued the republics of Naples and Amalfi, and the principal city of Capua. He was succeeded by his son, William the Good, the last prince of the race of Guiscard. At his death, the crown of Naples and Sicily passed to Henry VI., of Germany, son of Frederic Barbarossa, who had married Constance, aunt of William.

The German princes continued upon the throne, until at length the pope, who was opposed to them, offered the kingdom to Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, king of France; who led thither an army to enforce his claim. Manfred, the last German prince, was slain.

The whole of Italy was at this time divided between the Guelph, and Ghibbelline factions. Charles was master of Naples and Sicily, at the head of the Guelph party in Italy, and a prince of the first rank in Europe. The Neapolitans were in the French interest, but the Sicilians did not so cheerfully submit to its government. They were treated like a conquered country, and were called upon continually to endure insults and indignities.

The people, by the aid of John of Procida, an adherent of the house of Suabia, succeeded in placing upon the throne P  ter III., of Arragon, who had married Constance, the daughter of Manfred. A bloody war succeeded, in which the king of France supported the pretensions of the house of Anjou. James, the son of Peter, who had succeeded him on the throne of Arragon, desirous of peace, renounced his claims upon Sicily, in favour of the French; but the Sicilians, unwilling to submit to French domination, placed his brother Frederic upon the throne.

From this period, we find the kingdom of Naples a subject of perpetual contention, among the rival princes of France and Spain, and those of other countries, who from intermarriages derived claims to it.

At the close of this period, the Spanish princes had prevailed, and Ferdinand of Arragon was the sovereign of Naples and Sicily.

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## CHAPTER VIII.

### SECTION I.

#### THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

On the recovery of Constantinople by the Greeks, Michael Pal  ologus, to secure himself in possession of the throne he had usurped, deprived of his sight, and banished, John Lascaris, the heir of the crown. The crimes

of which Michael was thus guilty, drew upon him the anger of the patriarch Arsenius, who excommunicated him ; and stirred up a powerful faction in the empire.

Michael was succeeded by his son Andronicus, in whose reign

1282. there was an ineffectual attempt to unite the eastern

Andronicus I. and western churches.

The repose of the provinces was now disturbed by the invasion

1292. of the Catalans, who having served in the Sicilian

Invasion of the Catalans. wars, at their close swarmed into the Greek empire in quest of plunder.

But still more disastrous to the empire, were the civil wars waged between the emperor Andronicus, and his grand-

Civil wars. son of the same name, whose dissolute life alienated

the affections of his grandfather, and induced him to look for another successor. Twice the civil war was interrupted, and again renewed, until at length, after seven years, the younger Andronicus entered the capital triumphant.

The aged emperor abdicated the crown, which the younger seized.

In his reign, the decay of the empire was rapidly

1320. accelerated. Andronicus was the slave of intem-

Andronicus II. perance and debauchery, and became odious to his

subjects. He carried war into Asia, but found himself unable to cope with the Ottoman power. His death left the empire a prey to civil commotions.

John Palæologus swayed the imperial sceptre thirty-six years, during which period the distress of the nation was

1341. continually augmenting. At the instigation of

John Palæologus. Amurath, the Ottoman sultan, he put out the eyes

of Andronicus, his eldest son, and of John, his grandson, imprisoned them, and made Manuel, his second son, his heir. His reign was a series of alternate successes and defeats. His discontented subjects removed the two blind princes from their prison to the throne. The emperor, with Manuel, made his escape from Constantinople, and civil war was added to other disasters.

The Turks already encroached on the several borders of the empire, having obtained a firm footing in Europe.

A reconciliation between the contending princes was at length effected by the partition of the remaining possessions of the Greeks. Constantinople was left to John and Manuel ; and all without the wall, to the blind princes. The death of John, again renewed the

civil war, while the Ottoman sultan, Bajazet, now

1399. threatened the city. A truce was effected, by the

Bajazet threatens Constantinople. promise of an annual tribute from the Greeks, and the toleration of the Mahometan religion in the city.

Bajazet soon violated this truce, again laid siege to the city, under pretence of vindicating the right of John, the blind prince. Manuel was constrained to flee, and sought aid from France.—Meanwhile, Bajazet restored John to the throne ; then, claiming the city for himself, he continued the siege. Constantinople must have now fallen, had not a threatening power in the east demanded the immediate attention of Bajazet.

## SECTION II.

## THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

On the destruction of the Seljoukian kingdom, by the descendants of Jenghis Khan, many of the Turkish chiefs retired among the mountains, and established small principalities. Of these, that which eventually became of the most note, and exercised a wide and important influence upon the nations of the earth, was founded by Othman, and situated on the banks of the Langar. Othman's first warlike exploits were upon the provinces of the Greek empire. In 1299 he invaded Nicomedia, and his conquests were continued during a reign of twenty-seven years. Prusa, near the sea of Marmora, was taken in the latter years of this reign, and made the capital of the kingdom.

1299.

Othman I.

Othman was succeeded by his son Orchan, who continued his encroachments upon the Grecian provinces, conquered the whole of Bythinia, and obtained a victory over Andronicus the younger. Solyman, the son of Orchan, with several thousand Turks were carried across the Hellespont in the civil war of the Grecian princes, and once in possession of the fortresses of Thrace, the Grecian power was insufficient to expel them.

1326.

Orchan and Solyman.

The death of Solyman and of Orchan occurred at nearly the same time, and Amurath, the son of Orchan, succeeded to the command of the Turks. He pushed his conquests in Europe, subjected nearly the whole of Thrace to his sway, and made Adrianople his European capital. He turned his arms against the warlike tribes who dwelt between the Danube and the Adriatic. In a battle with these nations, in Servia, although victorious, he fell by the hand of a Servian soldier, who starting up from among the heaps of slain upon the battle-field, stabbed this destroyer of his country's independence.

1359.

Amurath.

—To Amurath is ascribed the establishment of the Janizaries, a distinguished military order. They were selected from among his captives, educated in the religion of the Moslems, trained to the exercise of arms, and consecrated by a dervish.

1362.

Janizaries established.

Amurath was succeeded by his son Bajazet, the rapidity of whose marches and conquests, procured him among his countrymen, the name of *Ilderim*, or the lightning.

Bajazet.

His conquests were not confined to the Christians, but extended to the dominions of the neighbouring emirs of Asia. In Europe, he subjected the remaining parts of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, carried his arms into Hungary, defeated at Nicopolis, on the Danube, a confederate army of French and Germans, but was here arrested in the career of victory by a fit of the gout.—The interference of Bajazet in the

1396.

Battle of Nicopolis.

affairs of the Greek princes, and his siege of Constantinople, have already been mentioned. From this siege, he was called by a Mogul irruption under Tamerlane, to defend his Asiatic dominions, and Constantinople was for a time delivered from the dread of his arms.

The Turkish empire in Asia now experienced an inundation of Moguls, under Tamerlane, a descendant in the female line, of Jenghis Khan, who from a chief of a small province of Transoxania, had raised himself to the sovereignty of the Mogul empire. He had expelled the Getes, or Calmucks, from Transoxania, achieved the conquest of Persia, and of Tartary, and carried his arms into Hindostan. In a campaign of one year, he made himself master of Delhi, passed the Ganges, and penetrated to the Burrampooter, when intelligence of disturbances in Georgia and Anatolia, and the conquests of Bajazet, induced him to return. The Christians of Georgia felt the power of his arms. Upon their submission, he turned them upon the Ottoman empire. After the conquest of one city in Anatolia, Tamerlane left for a time the Ottoman dominions. At Aleppo, the capital of Syria, he conquered the Turkish emirs, but at Damascus met with a repulse from the Mamelukes of Egypt. A revolt of the Mamelukes, however, delivered him from their arms, and he soon achieved the conquest of Damascus.

The period occupied by Tamerlane in the Syrian conquest, gave Bajazet an opportunity to prepare for the coming contest. At

1402. Angora, was fought between them the memorable battle in which the Ottoman power was overthrown, and the Moguls obtained a complete ascendancy. For the throne of the Ottoman empire, the proud

Bajazet was now compelled to accept an iron cage, in which he was carried about to grace the triumphant marches of his conqueror.—The invasion of Europe was prevented more by the want of a fleet, to conduct the forces of Tamerlane across the Hellespont, than by the suppliant embassies of the Greeks and the sons of Bajazet.—Tamerlane now projected the conquest of China, where the dynasty of Jenghis had recently been overthrown. But death prevented the execution of his plans.

After the conquest of Bajazet, though the strength of the Ottoman power was crushed, his sons were left in possession of the different provinces of his kingdom. The discord and dissension which followed, ceased only with the death of all, save Ma-

Mahomet I. and Amurath II. homet I., under whose sway the unity of the empire was restored. Mahomet was succeeded by

Amurath II. Amurath was diverted from the siege of Constantinople, which he had undertaken, by a revolt in his own dominions.

The revival of the Ottoman power, and the spread of the Turkish arms in Europe, awakened the pope Eugenius to a consciousness of the danger, not only of Constantinople, but of Christendom. He sought to form a league among the Christian powers for a crusade against the infidels. But his efforts were attended with little success. The Hun-

Pope Eugenius urges a crusade.

garians and Poles, under their monarch Ladislaus, in whom the government of both kingdoms was united, undertook the war. His army was augmented by many soldiers from France and Germany, and strengthened by the counsels and conduct of the pope's legate, cardinal Julian, and the brave Hungarian general, John Hunniades. The

The Christians victorious. Christians, in two successive battles, humbled the Ottoman power, and drew from Amurath an offer of peace.

By this peace, Amurath was to withdraw from their frontier ; but the remonstrances and intrigues of the cardinal soon procured its violation, and a mournful reverse to the former triumphs of the Christian arms, was now presented. With an army diminished by the departure of the French and Germans, (volunteers, who on the first sound of peace, had hastened to their homes;) Ladislaus marched to encounter Amurath. The Turk, irritated and incensed by the in-

1444.

Battle of Varna.

fraction of the treaty, hastened to avenge himself on the Christians. On the field of Varna, the armies were drawn up in hostile array, and a most sanguinary conflict terminated in the triumph of the Mahometans. Ladislaus signalized himself by daring feats, but at length perished on the field. Ten thousand Christians were slain, but so great was the loss of the Turks, that Amurath declared that another such victory would prove his ruin. The valiant Hunniades survived, and for many years defended the Hungarian frontier from the arms of the infidels.

With the exception of the siege which was commenced, and raised soon after his accession, Amurath made no attempt upon Constantinople. But when his son, Mahomet II., succeeded

Mahomet II. resolves on the destruction of the Greek empire.

him on the Ottoman throne, the destruction of the Greek empire was determined. While Mahomet was soothing Constantine, the last of the Greek emperors, with professions of friendship, he was secretly maturing his plans for the conquest of his capital. He erected a fortress on the European side of the Bosphorus, which gave him the command of the streets, and in spite of the supplications of the Greeks, prepared to besiege the city.

The winter preceding the siege, was one of distress and dismay within the capital. Constantine, with a spirit worthy the glorious days of the empire, endeavoured to animate the fainting hearts of his degenerate subjects, to quell their divisions, and to inspire them with an heroic ardour in vindicating the last remains of their possessions. He conveyed the intelligence of his distress to the western monarchs, and solicited the aid of his Christian brethren. But amid the din of arms, which resounded through the western nations, the petitions of Constantine passed unheeded. He next attempted to effect a reconciliation of the churches, which might enlist the pope in his cause, but the attempt only brought upon him the wrath of his intolerant and superstitious subjects, of the Greek churches, and involved the city in new disorders. Meanwhile Mahomet continued his active prepara-

tions for the siege, which early in the spring commenced by sea and land.

The spirits of the Greeks revived when a small fleet of five ships, furnished by Sicily, the Morea, and some of the islands of the Archipelago, triumphantly entered the harbour, after obtaining a splendid victory over the Turkish fleet which guarded the Bosphorus. Mahomet now devised a plan, by which his fleet obtained possession of the harbour, the entrance to which was guarded by a chain, and defended by the Greek vessels. He caused a passage of nearly two leagues to be dug over land, lined with planks, and smeared with grease; and in the space of one night, by the help of engines, and a prodigious number of men, he drew a fleet of more than a hundred vessels across this passage, and launched them all in the harbour.

1453.

Constantinople taken by the Turks.

The city, after enduring a siege of fifty-three days, was taken by assault. Constantine, the last of the Cæsars, perished fighting for his country, while multitudes fell by his side. The city experienced the horrors of sack and pillage, heightened by the animosity which the Mahometans felt towards the Christians. Mahomet now established his throne in the capital of the east, and the remainder of the Greek empire soon fell before the arms of the Moslem conqueror. His empire became consolidated, and a succession of able princes continued to fill the Ottoman throne.

# MODERN HISTORY.

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## PERIOD I.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE  
DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, 1492 A. D.

TO THE

The Treaty of } FIRST EPOCHA, 1559 A. D. } Chateau Cambresis.

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## CHAPTER I.

### GENERAL VIEW OF EUROPE.

#### SECTION I.

At the commencement of this period of history, we find the nations of Europe entering upon a new order of things. Science and literature began to revive, and to take the place of monastic legends and monkish superstitions. The human mind was expanded, and discoveries were made in the arts and sciences. The invention of gunpowder\* had already begun to mitigate the horrors of war.† That of the mariner's compass, had enabled the navigator to steer boldly forth into the broad ocean, no longer creeping timidly along the coast. In consequence, commerce, and with it, civilization and wealth, became more widely diffused.

\* Invented in 1320, by Schwartz a monk of Cologne.

† That this engine of destruction should have this effect, seems at first improbable, but experience has shown it to be true; and no doubt that the more certain the destruction should be to those who engage in war, the less frequent it would become. Particularly where the means of defensive war are made more fatal, the less the spirit of lawless aggression dares to show itself. Gunpowder, though carried into the field of battle, can be made still more destructive in those heavy fixed batteries, by means of which, cities and harbours are defended. The invention of gunpowder has done much to free mankind from the dominion of mere physical strength, and daring, and

The spirit of chivalry, by elevating women, and changing the character of the intercourse between the sexes, had contributed greatly to polish and refine the manners of society. The feudal system, which had made the people little better than slaves to a few great lords, had now declined. In some instances, the people had obtained their rights. In others, the power of the monarch over the lords, was confirmed, and although it sometimes approached to despotism, it was by no means a condition so degrading to the mass of the people, as when they had their petty tyrants at their own doors, ready to call them forth in clans to shed each other's blood.

From about this period, also, may be dated a new policy in Europe, having for its object the preservation of the balance of power, each nation being persuaded that it was unsafe to let any one become so strong, as to be able to get an ascendancy over all the others, and each beginning to perceive, that it was better to be guarantied in its own possessions, than to have the liberty of plundering others.

Still, it is but the dawn of improvement which at this time appears. —Popery, that terrible superstition, by which the wicked ambition of man to hold an unjust sway over his fellow, had perverted the greatest blessing of God, the Christian religion, to be the direst curse, was now at its full height. The practice of auricular confession began about A. D. 1200. By this, the emissaries of the pope, in the persons of confessors, obtained the secrets of those in power, and the popes were thus kept advised of coming events, and were prepared to meet them. The sins confessed, it was believed might be absolved by the confessor, and thus absolved, divine vengeance was no more to be feared for the most flagrant transgressions. Hence the power of conscience was put to rest, and deluded men, believing that the priesthood could open and shut the gates of heaven, sought rather to obtain their favour, than that of the all-seeing God. The priests, taking advantage of this delusion, found many methods of converting it into money. They sold indulgences to commit various sins, at various prices, according to their enormity. They made merchandise of natural affection, requiring masses to be paid by the people to keep their dead relatives from purgatory, and send them to heaven.

The church by these, and other means, grew rich; and the priests in many instances, rioted in luxury and ill concealed voluptuousness. But if men had accusing thoughts, they must not breathe them to the winds.

put them more under the control of mind. The knight whose giant arm could overthrow a host of common men, went forth in his armour almost invincible, and became powerful by his individual prowess. Since the invention of gunpowder, armour is useless, and a man's power must consist in his superior faculty to win, and direct others. Compare as examples, Richard Cœur de Lion, with Bonaparte. As numbers must generally now decide contests, wars become diminished. Because their result can be better foreseen, the weaker party of course submits, rather than engage in a contest probably fruitless.



A tribunal, the most blighting in its tyranny of any the world has ever known, was now established; and had its

1251.

secret agents at every turn. This was the INQUI-

The Inquisition.

SITION, a name at which those of other days turned pale. Private accusations were received by its emissaries,—the accused secretly arrested—not confronted with his accuser—tortured at the pleasure of the inquisitors, to make him confess his crime—and if he survived his agonies, publicly or privately executed, as best suited their purposes. The imbecile monarchs of Europe quietly submitted to this all-pervading despotism; being allowed peaceably to exercise their political functions, provided they gave no offence to the church.

From the papal power, however, some advantages were occasionally derived to society. Its exercise in the hands of a few of the popes, was guided by a degree of benevolence; and the interest of the church was, to keep its votaries at peace, and prevent their lavishing in war those treasures which in prosperous times flowed more freely into the coffers of the church.

## SECTION II.

### GENERAL VIEW OF THE SEVERAL EUROPEAN NATIONS.

We shall take a short survey of the situation of the different nations of Europe at the commencement of the period

1485.

from which we date Modern History. After which, we shall carry on a connected history of the whole, or speak of important nations separately, as we find their affairs more or less closely interwoven.

We now find Europe divided into several great monarchies, so nearly equal in power as to prevent any one trampling upon the rights of the rest.

ENGLAND under Henry VII. had been far more prosperous than under her warlike sovereigns. By degrees, the disorders and insurrections which attended the commencement of his reign were quieted; many good laws were passed, commerce and industry were encouraged; and though his avarice led him to make oppressive exactions, they were in a measure counterbalanced by these advantages. The parliament at this period had little independence, but gave its sanction to such acts as were most agreeable to the will of the reigning sovereign. Henry, although he in general avoided war, yet joined the other monarchs in their attempts to preserve the balance of power in Europe, and once invaded France, in order to draw back the French monarch from Italy.

SCOTLAND at this period, flourished under James IV., one of the greatest of her kings. He held the marauding nobles in check, and protected commerce.

1423.

SPAIN was now at the summit of her national glory. *Granada*, the last hold of Moorish strength, had fallen before the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella; and the whole territory of Spain was united under their sway. And the discovery of America now opened to them a new source of wealth, and a vast extent of dominion.

In FRANCE, all the great feudal nobles had been brought into subjection to the monarch. Charles VIII. succeeded to his father, Louis XI. After a short reign, he was succeeded by his son, Louis XII., by whose marriage with Anne, the heiress of Brittany, that important province, often contended for, was re-united to the crown of France.

In GERMANY, the emperor, Frederic III., was succeeded at this time by his son, the arch-duke Maximilian I. Burgundy now became annexed to the empire, by the marriage of Maximilian with Mary, the heiress of those provinces. His hereditary possessions were also increased by the death of his cousin, the arch-duke of Austria, to whose dominions he succeeded.

PORTUGAL, under the sway of Don Manuel, had commenced a series of successful naval enterprises, which extended her commerce and power, and made her respectable among the nations of Europe.

SWITZERLAND maintained her independence, notwithstanding the efforts of the German emperor, Maximilian, to establish his authority. The Swiss furnished soldiers, who enlisted in the service of the different monarchs in their wars; and their services on account of their faithfulness to their employers, were wont to be highly appreciated, and well rewarded.

ITALY remained divided into independent states. *Genoa* was prosperous; *Venice* had conquered the isle of Cyprus, and continued to monopolize the commerce of the Mediterranean, and of the Indies. Her merchants outvied in wealth and splendour, the monarchs of the most mighty nations. *Milan* was governed by Ludovico Sforza, called "the Moor," who had murdered his nephew, and usurped the ducal honours. *Naples* was under the sway of an illegitimate branch of the house of Arragon. *Florence* was governed by the family of the *Medici*. In *Rome*, the papal throne was filled by the infamous Alexander VI., who was seeking to extend the papal territories, and establish his vicious son, Caesar Borgia, in a principality in Italy.

1461.

The OTTOMAN throne was at this time filled by Bajazet II., a mild, yet courageous prince. He made war upon the Mamelukes of Egypt\* and subdued them.

From this period, the NORTHERN NATIONS of Europe begin to mingle in politics, and to be known as something more than barbarians. 1492. RUSSIA began to make exertions for the establishment of trade and intercourse with the more polished nations. Still, RUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK, and POLAND, were far behind the other European nations, and a considerable period of time elapses before their history becomes much connected with the general politics of Europe.

Before closing our remarks on the general state of Christian Europe, that portion of the globe which for many ages past has been the seat of learning, and the centre of a dominion which has reached to the farthest east, and the remotest west; we will hazard an hypothesis, which, though it should generally be regarded as visionary, yet will help the memory, by giving a common bearing to many facts regarded as desultory. It is this: Europe is destined to become a GRAND CONFEDERACY, and has been verging towards this point for ages. But the limits of the federative power over the individual

Europe destined to become a grand confederacy.

states has been, and still is, ill-defined and not understood, or acknowledged by individual states. There has been no regular representation of the several states in one general congress; no boundaries fixed to each state, to which all have been obliged to agree; and no prescribed force to carry into effect laws for the common good of the whole; or to protect the weak from the aggressions of the strong. But the idea of a *balance of power* to be preserved, is an indefinite confederation, tacitly acknowledging the obligations of each nation to respect the rights of the others; and saying to each—if you go *too far*, (it does not say *how far*,) we will all interfere to check you. The wars of Europe from this period of history, have mostly been the struggles of individual ambition against this undefined federative power.†

\* The Mamelukes were a body of Turkish slaves, who had gained great authority at the Egyptian court. They had by degrees gained so much property and influence that they threatened the existence of the Turkish power in Egypt.

† In our days, the spirit of freedom among the people, has caused the sovereigns to tremble for the stability of their thrones, and they have used the federative power against their own subjects.

## CHAPTER II.

## DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

## SECTION I.

The discovery of America is the most important event recorded in profane history.

The extraordinary man by whom it was accomplished, was Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa. Like many of his countrymen, he early engaged in navigation. His attention to astronomy, and his knowledge of the figure of the earth, led him to believe that there might be vast countries still undiscovered; and the glowing descriptions of Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller, who had visited the East Indies, led him to the desire of finding a passage to those rich countries by sea.

His first application for aid in his vast project, was made to his countrymen. They regarding his theory as the chimera of a visionary enthusiast, he next turned to Portugal, already, under John II., renowned for patronizing the spirit of discovery. But here also, ignorance and prejudice rose up to oppose him. The persons to whom the monarch submitted the examination of his plan, reported so unfavourably, that all aid to Columbus was withheld.

To Henry VII. of England, he had meantime fruitlessly applied, through his brother Bartholomew. Spain, now under Ferdinand and Isabella, was his next resort. After eight years, passed in indigence, and in repeated applications to that court, the generosity of Isabella at length put him in possession of scanty means, but sufficient to attain the long cherished object of his hopes. The monarchs had just completed the reduction of Granada; and in so low a state were the finances that the queen, animated by the greatness of the object, offered to pledge her jewels, for the necessary expenditure. This, however, was prevented by Santangal, receiver of the ecclesiastical revenues in Arragon, who advanced the requisite sum.

The armament, when fitted out, consisted of only three small vessels, manned by ninety men. With these frail barks, Columbus sailed from Palos in Spain, August 3d, 1492, and committed himself to the mercy of an unknown sea; nor is it wonderful, that the superstitious crew, uninspired with the enthusiastic hopes of their commander, should have regarded the enterprise with feelings of awe and terror. After sailing many days, discovering nothing but a boundless waste of waters, in a sea where no human being had ever before penetrated, their hearts misgave them, and they proposed to put to death their obstinate commander, who resisted all their solicitations to return. The genius of Columbus prevailed over the seditious crew; yet he was compelled to promise that if after three days no land should be

discovered, he would abandon the enterprise. Within the time specified, a little after midnight, on the 12th of October, 1492, the joyful shout of land! land! was uttered by Columbus himself. As the glad mariners approached the shore, which proved to be that of one of the Bahama islands, they beheld it crowded with the gazing natives, who pressed with eager curiosity to view the wonderful machines which were about to visit them.

Since the time when Noah left his ark to set his foot upon a recovered world, a landing so sublime as that of Columbus, had never occurred.—His majestic person attired with splendour, his more majestic mind deeply penetrated with religious gratitude, he led forth his officers and men.

Landing of Columbus.

His own was the first European foot which touched the American soil; and his first act was to prostrate himself upon it, and return devout thanks to that Being who had guided and preserved him. He next erected a crucifix, and took possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon. The innocent inhabitants received the Spaniards with joy, as superior beings.

From St. Salvador (the name he gave to the island,) Columbus visited several of the islands adjacent, and at length discovered Cuba. From thence, he sailed to Hispaniola, in pursuit of gold. On the coast of this island, one of his vessels was wrecked; but through his presence of mind, and the kind aid of the natives, the crew were all saved.

Cuba and Hispaniola discovered.

Columbus now felt the necessity of hastening his return to Europe. Arranging with the free consent of the inhabitants to leave a garrison of his own men on the island of Cuba, he took a few of the natives, and what gold he could obtain, together with specimens of the productions of the country; and on the sixteenth of January, 1493, set sail on his return, and arrived on the 15th of March at Palos, from whence he had departed seven months and eleven days before.

His success spread his renown through Europe. The inhabitants of Spain crowded to behold him. Ferdinand and Isabella received him with the most distinguishing marks of favour. A new spirit was awakened, multitudes were now ready to embark in an enterprise which promised them wealth and honour. Ferdinand and Isabella, agreeably to previous stipulation, appointed Columbus admiral and viceroy of all the countries discovered.

The sanction of the pope was obtained, and no instance can be adduced of more impious presumption on the one hand, and egregious credulity on the other, than the grants made on this and similar occasions. The holy father, in virtue of his authority as vicegerent of Christ, gave to the Spanish monarchs the sovereignty of all the countries which their navigators should discover. The monarchs then proceeded to make extensive discoveries, not doubting the validity of the title thus given.

Right of discovery.

Columbus set forth on his second voyage with a larger armament than before. On his return to Hispaniola, he found that the Spaniards whom he had left, had been massacred, and their fort destroyed. After the departure of their commander, their licentiousness and rapacity knew no bounds; and the kind hearted natives, at length roused to madness, destroyed, in self-defence, the abusive intruders.

Columbus now made choice of a healthy situation, where he founded a city, which he named Isabella: the first planted by the Europeans in the new world. The situation of the colony, however, was far from promising. During a short absence of Columbus from the town, on a voyage of discovery, the Spaniards, disobeying his commands, irritated the natives by new excesses. Assembling in vast numbers, they determined to drive from their land these terrible invaders. Columbus, having returned, attacked them in the night, and so alarmed were they by his fire-arms, and other weapons of European warfare, that they fled without resistance, and he at length subjected the whole island to the Spanish government.

The unhappy natives next attempted to destroy their oppressors by neglecting the cultivation of the maize and capsada, which furnished bread. They were themselves, however, the greatest sufferers. The Spaniards received supplies from Europe, while the Indians, having retired to the mountains and wooded parts of the island, and subsisting upon spontaneous productions of the soil, fell with famine and disease, and in a few months, more than a third part of the inhabitants of the island perished.

## SECTION II.

Columbus leaving the government of the colony to his faithful brother, Bartholomew, again returned to Spain, where his enemies were undermining his interest with the king. He was received with seeming favour, but the delays attendant on the fitting out of another expedition, and the preparations for making the colony permanent, detained him two years.

In his third voyage, he proceeded further to the south, discovered the mouth of the Orinoco, and sailing thence westward, landed at several places on the continent. On his arrival at Hispaniola, he found the affairs of the colony in a suffering state. The insurrections of the natives, and still worse, the mutiny of the Spaniards, had reduced his brother to the greatest distress.

Private expeditions began now to be attempted. An armament under the command of Alonzo de Ojeda, was fitted out by the merchants of Seville. Ojeda, having obtained the charts and journal of Columbus, followed directly the

track which he had pursued in his last voyage. Reaching Paria, he sailed along a considerable extent of its coast, and ascertained (what Columbus had previously supposed) that it was a part of a continent.

Amerigo Vesputio, a native of Florence, accompanied this expedition, and by publishing a work on his return, descriptive of the country and natives, came to be considered the discoverer of the continent; and thus fraudulently deprived Columbus of the honour of giving it his own name.

Meanwhile the Portuguese had pushed their discoveries in the east. A squadron under the command of Vasco de Gama, had doubled the Cape of Good Hope and discovered the passage to India. The following year, another expedition, steering west to avoid the winds and calms off the coast of Africa, discovered the coast of Brazil, in South America, and took possession of the country for the crown of Portugal.

Many of the colonists which Columbus had carried over, were of the very dregs of society—criminals who were released from prison, to be transported to the New World. His attempts to enforce discipline among this licentious mass, exposed him to their hatred; and they made false accusations against him, which eventually reached the court of Spain. There he had active enemies. Envy, which ever follows, and seeks to depreciate superior merit, had been awakened, by witnessing his splendid successes, and they now misrepresented him to the sovereigns. Isabella, though she had long withstood these calumnies, at last yielded to their influence, and believed Columbus to be guilty of oppression to the natives.

Francis de Bovadilla was now appointed to proceed to Hispaniola, with power to examine into the administration of Columbus, and if necessary, to supersede him in the government. On his arrival, the island had been reduced by Columbus to submission, and all dissensions composed. Bovadilla, however, at once assumed the government, and sent Columbus in chains to Europe. Ferdinand, ashamed of this injustice, gave orders on his arrival in Spain, that he should be released, and invited to court. This cold and calculating monarch received him with civility; Isabella, with tenderness. Columbus recapitulated to his sovereigns his trials, his efforts and his injuries. But, though Bovadilla was removed from the government and recalled, Columbus was not reinstated in his rights, now so extensive as to be an object of jealousy to the court. On the contrary, Nicholas de Ovando was appointed governor of St. Domingo.

Columbus, though he felt keenly this new injury, remained two years an unsuccessful suitor at the court of Spain. Finding it vain to solicit the redress of his injuries from an ungrateful monarch, he offered to conduct another voyage of discovery, to seek a new passage to the Indies, which he expected to find somewhere near the isthmus of Darien. Ferdinand, hoping to reap new advantages from his genius, furnished

him with four small ships, and Columbus, at an advanced age, again went forth to seek new countries. This voyage was disastrous; after sailing along the coast a considerable distance, he found his hopes of discovering a strait, delusive. He encountered a violent storm, and his vessels were so much injured as to compel him to run them aground at Jamaica. Here, far away from all aid or consolation, he was detained more than a year by the governor of St. Domingo. When he returned, Isabella was dead, and from her-alone he had hopes of sympathy and justice. Heart stricken by this blow, he sunk into despondency, and died at Valladolid, A. D. 1506, in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

1506.

Columbus dies.



## CHAPTER III.

## SECTION I.

## ITALY.

A war now commences, the seat of which is Italy, but which engages several of the great powers. Its first subject was the sovereignty of Naples, which, as we have before seen, had been long contested between the French and Spanish. The throne was now claimed by Charles VIII. of France, though occupied by a Spanish prince. Charles, being instigated by Ludovico Sforza, duke of Milan, to prosecute his claim, invaded Italy at the head of a large army. All the Italian powers were alarmed, and even Sforza was surprised at the result of his intrigue; but as no opposition was made, Charles achieved the conquest of Naples without the shedding of blood. He was, however, at little pains to establish his government in Naples, and the licentious manners of the French rendered the Italians more and more averse to their dominion. Meanwhile the jealousy of the other powers was awakened, and Sforza, who had suggested to Charles the idea of this conquest, now united in a league with the Venetians, the object of which was to expel the French from Italy, which Ferdinand, king of Spain, the pope, Alexander, and the emperor, also joined. Charles, on learning this, left a governor in Naples, and garrisons in the principal towns, marched to meet the confederate armies, and encountered them near Parma, where a battle ensued. Though his enemies had nearly double his force, he obtained a partial victory, but was forced to retreat to France, with little the air of a conqueror.

Ferdinand II. took advantage of his retreat to recover Naples, and was aided in his designs by that valiant captain, Gonsalvo di Cordova, and the French were at length driven from the south of Italy.

The death of Charles VII., who left no sons, was followed by the elevation of Louis XII., duke of Orleans, to the throne of France. Louis early asserted his claims to Italy. In addition to the claims upon Naples, he asserted a right to the duchy of Milan. By various incitements, he allured pope Alexander VI., the Venetians, and the Florentines, to his interest. He then marched into Italy, and achieved the conquest of Milan, almost without a blow. Sforza was eventually taken, and ended his days an unpitied prisoner in France. Louis

1499.  
Louis XII. conquers  
Milan.

next set himself to the recovery of Naples, and for this object formed an alliance with Ferdinand of Spain, by the terms of which the kingdom of Naples was to be divided. The French monarch was to possess the northern, and the Spanish, the southern portion, and each to conquer his own division. This treaty but prepared the way for

more bloody and lasting wars, as the French and Spanish portions not being defined, they each claimed the central parts.

While Gonsalvo di Cordova, was already pushing the war in Italy, Ferdinand was amusing Louis with negotiations. When the Spanish troops had made themselves masters of Naples, Louis became sensible that he had been duped, prepared to attack Ferdinand with vigour, and to carry the war both into Spain and Italy. But despite of his efforts, the Spaniards remained masters of the whole kingdom.

The Spaniards gain  
Naples.

Meantime a change in the views of the popedom had taken place. The death of Alexander VI. was followed by the election of Julius

1508.

Pope Julius II.

II. This pontiff, not satisfied with the engines which his sacred character put into his hands, to bend kings to his will, sunk that character, in the ambition to rival those kings in the extent of his temporal dominions, and in intrigue, and martial achievement, proved the master spirit of his day. His object was to extend the popedom over all Italy. The power of Venice must first be humbled. To effect this,

League of Cambray.

Venice humbled.

Julius entered into an alliance, called the "league of Cambray," with Louis of France, and Maximilian of Germany. The Venetians could not withstand their power. After losing a battle, they gave up their possessions on the continent, and retreated to their city.

Having humbled the Venetians, and obtained a portion of their territories, as he desired, Julius next determined to expel every foreign power from Italy, and he now found means to draw the Venetians to his alliance against France. Spain and

1521.

Holy league against  
France.

French successful at  
Ravenna, but lose  
Milan.

Switzerland soon joined the "Holy league." Louis despatched a powerful army into Italy, under the command of his gallant nephew, Gaston de Foix. After brilliant successes, this young hero penetrated to Ravenna, and there encountered the troops of the allies, and completely defeated them, but fell in the battle. With him fell the fortunes of the French. They were driven out of Milan, and the son of Sforza was seated on the ducal throne.

Meanwhile, Ferdinand of Spain made himself master of Navarre, which he conquered from John d'Albret, its sovereign, who was in alliance with France.

Spain conquers  
Navarre.

## SECTION II.

### FRANCIS I.—CHARLES V.

The death of pope Julius, at this period, changed the aspect of things. His successor, the accomplished Leo X., of the illustrious house of Medicis, showed himself friendly to France. The death of Louis occurred shortly after that of pope Julius. Leaving only a daughter, the crown of France

Leo X.

Francis I. descended to his cousin, Francis I. This popular prince was distinguished for the manly beauty of his countenance and person, the suavity of his manner, his bravery, and ambition, rather than for the soundness of his mind. Such, though as men, they may be the joy of social life, as princes, seldom fail of causing destruction to human life, and public prosperity. Thus it eventually proved with Francis.

Bent on the recovery of Milan, he assembled a large army, led them in person across the Alps, and, at Marignan, encountered the Swiss in the service of the Milanese, fought and won a bloody battle. The duchy of Milan submitted, and its duke, Maximilian Sforza, abandoned his claims to its sovereignty, and in exchange, received a pension from France. Pope Leo X. now made peace with France, and Europe for a short season enjoyed a general tranquillity.

The death of Ferdinand, king of Spain, was followed by the elevation of his grandson, Charles V., then sixteen years of age. The character of this prince, contrasts strongly with that of the young king of France. He was grave and judicious, but cold and calculating, a less amiable man, but perhaps a more desirable sovereign. He was the son of Philip, arch-duke of Austria, who was son of the emperor Maximilian, and Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. From his maternal grand-parents, he inherited Spain—from his paternal, Austria and the Netherlands.

About two years after the elevation of Charles to the sovereignty of Spain, the death of his grandfather, the emperor Maximilian, left the imperial throne vacant, and presented a source of competition between Charles and Francis. Both offered themselves as candidates. The electors very naturally preferred the claims of Charles, who was a prince of German origin, and heir to the Austrian possessions, to those of a foreigner, who was not even acquainted with their language. At another period, they might have been jealous of concentrating so many powers in one man; but at this time, they felt the need of a powerful sovereign to defend them from the alarming power of the Turks. Charles therefore obtained the election.

It was not long before the disappointed Francis found pretexts for hostilities. He presented claims to Naples, and required the restoration of Navarre to its hereditary prince, as an ally of France. Charles, on the other hand, revived his claim upon Burgundy, which, he averred, had been unjustly united to France by Louis XI.; and he claimed Milan, as a fief of the German empire.

Both monarchs made preparations for war, and strengthened themselves by alliances. The French were again unsuccessful, and were expelled from Milan. Francis Sforza, brother of the late duke, was raised to the duchy, which he held as a fief of the German empire.

Francis was meanwhile perplexed by the defection of one of his most important subjects, a man of splendid talents as well as of powerful connexions, Charles, duke of Bourbon, constable of the kingdom, who, from a quarrel with the queen mother, abandoned the service of his country, and in a spirit of revenge, entered that of the emperor.

The French king, having successfully repelled an invasion of the imperialists into Provence, resolved to march in person, at the head of an army, into Italy. In 1524 he besieged Pavia. A division of the opposing army, under the duke of Bourbon, attacked him, defeated him, and made him prisoner, and in two weeks the French were entirely driven from Italy. Francis wrote to his mother, "Madame, all is lost but our honour." France was filled with dismay, and the other allied powers with surprise and grief.

Meantime Francis was conveyed to Spain. His reception in that kingdom gave to Charles the character of an ungenerous and unfeeling rival. Charles, however, at length became sensible that his conduct was obnoxious in the eyes of all Europe. Insurrections in Italy threatened to diminish his power in that quarter. Henry VIII. of England entered into a treaty with the queen-mother, Louise of Savoy, who was regent of France, by which he pledged himself to a defensive alliance with that kingdom, and to the exertion of his power in procuring the release of the captive monarch.

Charles at last became thoroughly alarmed by the discovery that Francis had resolved to resign his crown, and was taking measures to carry his purpose into effect. He then negotiated with his prisoner the peace styled the treaty of Madrid, by which he was released; but his liberty was dearly bought. The states refused to ratify the treaty, and the pope absolved Francis from his oath.

### SECTION III.

The pope, Clement VII., the successor of Leo, the Venetians, and the duke of Milan, now formed a league with Francis against the emperor, and induced Henry VIII. to become its protector. Of this league, termed the "Holy league," the pope was at the head. The duke of Bourbon again received the command of the imperial forces in Italy, and before the arrival of reinforcements to the confederates from France, took Milan, plundered and overran the territory, and advanced upon Rome. The pope, alarmed, shut himself up in the castle of St. Angelo. Bourbon prepared to storm the city, but while mounting the wall was slain. His army continued the assault, and made themselves masters of the town, which was now exposed to all the fury of a licentious soldiery. Rome now witnessed a

1521.  
"Holy league"  
against Charles.

1527.  
Charles takes Rome  
—the pope prisoner.

scene of pillage, bloodshed and debauchery unequalled even in the conquests of the Goths. The imperial army remained in possession of the city two months, retaining the pope a prisoner. Charles, with characteristic dissimulation, affected the utmost sorrow at the captivity of the holy father, and ordered a general mourning upon the occasion.

Meantime, Henry VIII., of England, again alarmed, was excited against the emperor by the continued successes of his arms, and by the indignity offered to the pope; and he was encouraged in these sentiments by the famous cardinal Wolsey, who believed himself to have been excluded from the pontificate by Charles.

1525.

Henry VIII. forms  
a treaty with Francis,  
against the emperor.

A new treaty between Henry and Francis was therefore formed, and their united armies marched into Italy. The commander, Lautrec, made himself master of Genoa and Pavia, and from thence advanced towards Rome. On the approach of the confederated army, the emperor liberated the pope. Lautrec then invaded the kingdom of Naples, and besieged the city with every prospect of success.

At this juncture, the French king, by some regulations likely to affect the commerce of Genoa, offended Andrew Doria. Andrew Doria, a Genoese admiral of great merit, who had engaged in the French service, and was blockading the port of Naples. Doria drew off the Genoese fleet, leaving the port free. Fresh troops and provisions arrived in aid of the citizens, and Lautrec was compelled to raise the siege. In the north of Italy, similar bad fortune attended the arms of the confederates.

By this time both Charles and Francis were weary of war. Charles had difficulties to contend with in his German dominions, which demanded all his energies. The monarchs therefore gave their sanction to a peace, sometimes called the ladies' peace, negotiated by Louise, the queen-mother, and Margaret of Hungary, the aunt of Charles. By this arrangement, Francis relinquished his claim upon the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois.

1519.

Peace of Cambray,  
or the "ladies'  
peace."

The REFORMATION had spread extensively in the empire, and threatened to subvert the authority of the pope. Charles, though a bigoted adherent of the Roman church, had been compelled, by the war with France, to leave the Germans in the exercise of their opinions; but he was desirous of interposing his authority for the suppression of heresy. In addition to this, the empire was threatened by the Turks, who had already invaded Hungary, and now menaced the Austrian dominions. The pressing need of giving his attention to this war, induced Charles to leave the religious controversy still undecided. To obtain the assistance of the protestants against the

1520.

The REFORMATION.

Turks, he affected great moderation. Solyman, the Turkish sultan, entered Hungary at the head of 300,000 men. Charles assembled from different parts of the empire a well disciplined regular force of 90,000 foot,

and 20,000 horse, besides many irregulars. The emperor himself now for the first time took the command in person. No battle was fought; but after a summer campaign, Solyman, overawed, relinquished his proposed invasion, and retraced his steps to Constantinople.

Charles now returned to Spain, and prepared for an expedition against the Barbary states. Hayraddin, or Barbarossa, the commander of a piratical fleet, had made

1535.

Charles goes against the Barbary states.

himself the terror of all the countries on the shores of the Mediterranean. He ravaged the coasts of Italy, and invaded the kingdom of Tunis, which he conquered, and drove away its king. The exiled prince applied to Charles for aid, and the emperor gladly entered upon a war which might rid him of a formidable and piratical neighbour, and in the eyes of all Christendom, be in truth a holy expedition. He collected a veteran army from various parts of his dominions, and with a fleet of nearly five hundred vessels sailed for Africa. Barbarossa drew together the Moorish and Arabian forces of the different African princes, to whom he represented the invasion as an attack upon all Mussulmen. Notwithstanding this formidable resistance, the expedition of the emperor proved successful. The conquest of Francis, the release of twenty thousand Christian slaves, and the check given to the piratical power, were truly glorious to Charles, and called forth the applause and admiration of the civilized world.

The absence of the emperor in Africa seemed to Francis a fit opportunity for renewing the war. The trial and execution of his envoy at the court of Milan, for

Francis renews the war.

the murder of one of the duke's domestics, afforded a pretext. He at once engaged in war, despatched an army into Italy, which ravaged the territories of the duke of Savoy, an ally of the emperor, almost without opposition. The death of Sforza, without heirs, now occurring, Francis renewed his claim to the duchy of Milan. Charles, in the meantime, returned successful from his African expedition, and now flattered himself that he might add France to his other conquests. He invaded it, and was pressing forward with vigour. Francis prudently resolved to maintain only a defensive warfare. He directed his general, Montmorenci, who commanded in the south of France, to lay waste the country on which the emperor must depend for subsistence. He obeyed, and rendered the attempts of the imperial forces entirely unsuccessful.

Charles invades France.

1536.

Francis forms a league with the Turks.

Francis in the meantime had obtained a powerful ally in Solyman, the sultan. Solyman despatched an army into Hungary, which defeated the Germans in a great battle at Essek, on the Drave, and sent his fleet under Barbarossa to the coast of Italy; the Turks landed near Tarento, ravaged the country, and retired. The feelings of all the Christian powers were outraged by this union with the infidels. Efforts were made by the pope to effect a peace, which both monarchs greatly desired, but the terms of which could

not be settled. At last, through his mediation, a truce of ten years was agreed upon.

During the period of this truce, Charles wished to pass through France to the Netherlands, to suppress an insurrection of the citizens of Ghent. He hesitated whether he should trust himself to the power of his rival. The generosity of Francis' character, and his chivalric notions of honour, induced him to make the trial. His confidence was far from being disappointed.— Charles suppressed the insurrection, and inflicted rigorous punishments upon the citizens of Ghent, his native city. During this year he made a second expedition against the pirates, which was disastrous and unsuccessful.

1541.

Charles goes a second time against the pirates.

Meantime, his obstinate refusal to grant to Francis the investiture of Milan, caused the truce to be broken. For two years, war raged in France and Spain, Italy and the Netherlands, with all its concomitant horrors, but without any decisive result. A treaty of peace was at length concluded at Crespi, in which Charles made several concessions.

1544.

Peace of Crespi.

## CHAPTER IV.

### THE REFORMATION.

The corruptions of the Romish church, and the despotic power which the popes exercised, had frequently produced controversies between the pontiffs, and the different sovereigns of Christendom. In many instances, however, individuals of uncommon penetration and courage, had burst from the thralldom of superstition, and asserted their right to freedom of opinion. Of this number were, Wickliffe, Huss, and Jerome of Prague. Still no successful resistance was made to its usurpations, until the commencement of the sixteenth century, when the revival of letters had awakened a spirit of inquiry, and the influences of the art of printing began to be felt.

Leo X., to defray the expenses of building St. Peter's church at Rome, pushed the sale of indulgences. Tetzels, a Dominican friar, of licentious morals, was commissioned to sell these licenses for past and future sins, and despatched to Germany in the execution of his commission.

This excited the indignation of Martin Luther, a monk of the order of St. Augustine, a man renowned for his learning. He boldly exposed the licentious lives of the vendors of indulgences, and the impotency of their pretended absolving powers. He was summoned to the court of Rome, to answer to the charges there brought against him. The professors of the univer-

sity of Wittemberg, and his other friends, entreated the pope to permit his trial to be held in Germany. A legate was accordingly despatched thither. The legate adduced the authority of the church for the sale of indulgences. Luther appealed to scripture. The legate insisted upon his recantation. Luther declared that he never would renounce opinions which he believed to be true, and appealed to the pope at Rome. Here he was condemned as a heretic. He then appealed to a general council. Charles V. summoned him to appear before a diet at Worms. He was condemned; but Charles' affairs in Spain, and the Low Countries, requiring his immediate attention, prevented the execution of the decree. Luther, meanwhile, was protected, and for a time, secreted, by the elector of Saxony. Afterwards he propagated his opinions with renewed zeal.

Proceedings against  
Luther.

Rome.

1521.

Diet at Worms.

For the eight years succeeding the diet of Worms, Charles was fully occupied by his contests with Francis. In the meantime, the sentiments of the Reformers continued to spread rapidly. In Switzerland, two or three years before Luther commenced his career, Zuinglius, a priest of Zurich, entered on the same course, and was heard with admiration by the Swiss. From Germany these opinions quickly extended to France, the Low Countries, and England.

Zuinglius.

The peace of Cambray no sooner liberated Charles from the French war, than he summoned a diet at Spire, to settle the religious controversies. The decree of the diet confirmed that of Worms, and forbade any further innovation in religious matters. The elector of Saxony, with other princes of the empire, and the deputies of fourteen imperial cities, protested against the decree, and hence the reformers received the name of PROTESTANTS. The emperor summoned another diet at Augsburg. Luther was not permitted to attend, lest his impetuous spirit should increase the dissensions, and because he was an excommunicated person. His friend, the amiable Melancthon drew up the protestant confession of faith, which was presented to the diet; but all efforts at reconciliation were fruitless, and a more rigorous decree was passed against the protestants.

1529.

Diet at Spire.

Reformers called  
Protestants.

Diet at Augsburg.

1530.

Melancthon.

1531.

League of  
Smalkald.

The reformers in self-defence now formed the league of Smalkald, in which the protestant states pledged themselves to defend each other against all aggression. They also formed a secret alliance with Henry VIII. of England, and with Francis, the constant enemy of Charles.

From this period, 1531, to the peace of Crespi, 1544, the emperor, occupied by his wars with the French, and the Turks, and by his expedition to Africa, left the protestants free to promulgate their opinions.

Relieved from these cares, Charles determined to employ the whole weight of the imperial power to suppress the reformation.



1545.

Council of Trent.

He accordingly leagued with the pope, to extirpate heresy. A council was convened at Trent. The protestants refused to submit to its decisions, and determined to resort to arms. Charles, unprepared for immediate war, had recourse to his usual arts, intrigue, and negotiation. He won Maurice, a prince of the Saxon family, by promising to give him the possessions of the elector of Saxony. While

1546.

Luther dies.

the emperor and princes of the league were thus negotiating, Luther died. The prospects of the protestants seemed dark. They were subject to all the evils arising from divided councils. Maurice invaded Saxony, defeated the troops of the Elector, and made himself master of almost the whole electorate. The disheartened confederates sued to the emperor for peace, but the conditions he imposed, were so rigorous that they were at once rejected. Their army, meantime, very imprudently separated. This was no sooner done, than Charles took measures to procure the separate submission of the princes. All but the elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Hesse, yielded. The elector returned to his electorate, which he recovered. The death of Francis, relieving Charles from fear of France, he carried the war into Saxony. The elector was defeated, and taken prisoner. The landgrave alone was

1547.

Protestant cause  
desperate.

now in arms. By artifice, the emperor obtained possession of his person, and detained both him and the elector, in rigorous captivity. The league, so formidable at first, was now wholly dispersed.

At a diet held at Augsburg, a system of doctrine called "the Interim," because it was to be binding only until a general council should be called, was prepared by the emperor's orders. This system, although relaxed in one or two points, was decidedly against the protestants, and did not satisfy

1548.

"The Interim."

either them or the catholics.

The emperor desired to make the imperial dignity hereditary in his family, and sought to procure his son, Philip, to be elected king of the Romans, and heir of the empire, to the prejudice of his brother Ferdinand, who had already received the title of king of the Romans. These, with other measures, alarmed the German princes. The elec-

Maurice plots  
against Charles.

tors refused to yield to his solicitation. Maurice of Saxony now secretly became his enemy, and with consummate art, set himself to countermine his

plans. He obtained of Charles the command of the imperial army, and was employed to compel the citizens of Magdeburg to submit to the Interim. After accomplishing that object, he delayed, under various pretexts, to disband his army. He next obtained the support of Henry II. of France. At the head of 20,000 foot, and 5,000 horse, he now published a manifesto, boldly stating the reasons of his taking arms. Charles, out of health, and not suspicious of ill, was, with a few soldiers, at Innspruck. He had no resource but flight,

Charles flees.

and unable to travel in a carriage, the sovereign of half Europe was hurried over the Alps in a litter.

He arrived safely at Villach, in Carinthia, where he remained till matters were settled with the protestant princes.

**Maurice** finding the pursuit fruitless, returned to Innspruck. The council of Trent, separated in consternation. Meantime negotiations commenced at Passau, which at length terminated in a peace, styled "the Peace of Religion." Its principal stipulation was, that the liberties and rights of the protestants in Germany, should be secured.

1552.  
Peace of Passau.

The French king had no part in this treaty, so that Charles still had a war upon his hands. The Turkish fleet again made a descent upon Italy, and ravaged the coast of Naples; while, in Hungary, the imperial arms were unsuccessful.

Charles, wearied with the cares of royalty, now abdicated his crown, resigning the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip. His brother Ferdinand was chosen emperor by the electors of Germany. In order to leave his dominions in quiet, he made a truce with Henry III. of France, for five years. He then retired to a monastery in Spain, where he passed the two remaining years of his life, with no amusement but that of making watches.

**James IV.**, of Scotland, invaded England with a powerful army, but was defeated in the bloody battle of Flodden field, and slain with the flower of the Scottish nobility.

1513.  
Battle of Flodden field.

**James V.** was a minor at the time of his father's death. Henry intrigued to get the administration placed in the hands of his sister, queen Margaret, mother of the young king. Between her and the duke of Albany, who had been appointed regent, constant dissensions arose. Hostilities with the English continued, with no important results. James made peace with Henry, but espousing first, Magdalen, a French princess, and after her death, Mary of Guise, the Scotch became still more closely united with the French. Scotland, as well as England, had become imbued with the principles of the reformation. James, however, adhered zealously to the religion of Rome, and persecuted the protestants. This was another source of enmity between him and the king of England. Another war ensued. At Haddonrig, the Scottish arms triumphed over the English. Shortly after, James having assembled an army of thirty thousand men, their feudal leaders refused to advance into England. News arrived of the disgraceful flight of the Scots on the western border. The monarch sunk under these misfortunes, and shortly after died.

Meanwhile, a spirit of opposition to the church of Rome had rapidly extended among the English. Henry VIII. had at first written against it, and burned several heretics; but at this time favoured the good cause. He wished to be divorced from Catharine of Arragon, in order to espouse Anne Boleyn, a lady of the court. He affected to be convinced that his marriage with Catharine was illegal, because she was his brother's widow, and therefore within the degrees of affinity forbidden by the church. He appealed to Rome, but his suit was delayed from time to time. At length he was summoned to appear

Henry VIII. seeks a divorce.

at Rome, an insult which he highly resented. He next proposed the question of the validity of his marriage to the universities of Europe, and received answers favourable to his purpose.

Cardinal Wolsey, was in favour of the divorce, and consequently incurred the ill will of Catharine's party. He secretly desired to procure a marriage for Henry with some French princess, in order to forward his own design upon the papal crown. His intrigues awakened suspicions in the friends of Anne Boleyn, and roused their indignation. Wolsey was apprehended on the charge of high treason, but died of a sudden illness before the time of his trial.

Henry resolved to wait no longer the pope's determination. Cranmer, as primate declared his marriage null and void. He then married his favourite. The church of England was severed from that of Rome, and

1525.  
Wolsey's disgrace.  
Henry marries  
Anne Boleyn.

the king was declared its head. The Reformation progressed in England, though the measures of the monarch continually fluctuated, and he exercised a despotic power, over both protestants and Romanists.—His regard for Anne Boleyn was of short continuance. She was soon discarded for Jane Seymour ; she, for Anna of Cleves ; she, for Catharine Howard ; and she, for Catharine Parr.

The execution of Sir Thomas More, chancellor of the kingdom, who is said to have resembled the ancient sages more than any man who had appeared in Europe for centuries, awakened the indignation of all Christendom. More refused either to affirm or deny the validity of Catharine's marriage or the supremacy of the king in religious matters ; although he declared himself ready to swear that he would support the succession to the crown, established by parliament. The despotic Henry and his obsequious ministers pronounced him guilty of treason.

Execution of Sir  
Thomas More.

Henry, by his will, left his crown, first to his son, Edward VI., next to Mary, daughter of Catharine, and next to Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. Edward was but nine years of age at the death of his father. The government was committed to a regency, at the head of which was his uncle, Henry Seymour, earl of Hertford, created duke of Somerset. He, adhering to the opinions of Luther, established a church not only independent of the see of Rome, but dissenting from

1557.  
Edward VI.

it in matters of doctrine. The young monarch had himself zealously espoused the protestant cause, and during this reign, a liturgy in the English language was adopted, and the church of England established on much the same foundation as that on which it now exists.

1549.  
English liturgy.

The war with Scotland continued. The object of Henry was to procure the hand of the young queen, Mary Stuart, in marriage for his son Edward, and thus unite both crowns. The Catholic party preponderated in the Scottish councils, and Mary was affianced to the dauphin of France. The war, although sanguinary, resulted in nothing decisive, and at length, a peace was concluded.

The health of Edward failed, and the hopes derived from his amiability of character and attachment to the protestant cause, were about to be blighted. The duke of Northumberland, now sought to prepare the way for the elevation of one of his family to the throne. Lord Guilford Dudley, son of Northumberland, had married the lady

**1553.** Jane Grey, the grand daughter of Mary, youngest daughter of Henry VII. The attachment of Edward to the lady Jane, who was about his own age, and who had been, under the celebrated Roger Ascham, the companion of his studies, with her piety and sweetness of character, rendered him more accessible to the reasonings of Northumberland. He, accordingly, without the knowledge of Lady Jane, declared her his successor. When, on the death of Edward, the tidings of her elevation were announced to her, she fainted with surprise and grief. When she recovered, she sought to escape the unwelcome dignity, urging the prior claims of Mary and Elizabeth. But in an evil hour, she suffered her scruples to be overruled by her ambitious relatives, and was proclaimed queen. A contest ensued between Northumberland and the partizans of Mary, in which the latter were successful.

Northumberland was impeached for treason and executed. The innocence of Lady Jane, and her husband, Lord Dudley, procured them a short respite; but at length, they too, were condemned.

The leading partisans of Lady Jane were next tried and executed, and the Catholic bishops were restored. Negotiations were shortly after commenced for the marriage of the queen, which, notwithstanding the remonstrances of her subjects, resulted in a treaty with Charles V., who had proposed her union with his son Philip II.

**1555.** An insurrection, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt, and the duke of Suffolk, showed the disturbed state of the public mind. The conspirators had urged Elizabeth to assume the crown, which, with her characteristic prudence, she refused.

Shortly after the arrival of Philip in England, the realm was, with great ceremony, re-united to the Roman church, and absolved by cardinal Pole, from the sins of heresy and schism. At Rome, this event was celebrated with great joy and splendour. This reconciliation

**1555.** was the signal for lighting up the fires of persecution in England. The first martyr was John Rogers, who was burnt at Smithfield, March 4th, 1555. Latimer, Ridley, Hooper, and Cranmer, were also made victims. The number of those who suffered death for conscience sake, during this short reign, is estimated at four hundred, of whom two hundred and ninety were burned alive. Many of the protestants fled to foreign lands.

The death of the bloody Mary, which occurred not long after, was followed by the accession of her sister Elizabeth to the throne. The following year, the wars which so long had agitated Europe, were composed by the treaty of CHATEAU CAMBRESIS, which procured a general peace.

**1556.**  
Elizabeth succeeds  
Mary.

## PERIOD II.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The treaty of } FIRST EPOCH, 1559 A. D. } Chateau Cambresis,

TO THE

To the assassination } SECOND EPOCH, 1610 A. D. } of Henry IV.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

After Charles V., the main light of the historical picture should, until the rise of Henry IV. of France, be thrown upon Elizabeth of England; as being the most powerful, sagacious and politic sovereign of the time. Though she succeeded to the crown without opposition, her claims were every where disputed by the catholics, on the ground that the marriage of her father, Henry VIII., to her mother, Anne Boleyn, was not valid; the pope not having sanctioned his divorce from Catharine of Arragon. The pope accordingly issued a bull, declaring her illegitimate.

1558.

Elizabeth.

Mary, queen of Scots, was esteemed the lawful heir. She had remained in France, been educated to extensive knowledge of languages, general literature and elegant accomplishments, and was now married to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II.

Mary, queen of  
Scots.

By the advice of the duke of Guise and the cardinal of Lorraine, the brothers of her mother, she assumed the arms and title of "queen of England;" though no immediate measures were used to support her claim. Meanwhile Elizabeth strengthened herself in her authority, and in the affections of her subjects, by prudent measures, and by manners of mingled dignity and courtesy.

In Scotland, the reformation had made great progress. The heads of the protestant party, the principal of whom was the bigot,

The health of Edward failed, and the family of Guise possessed ability of character and attachment. Mary of Guise, who was about to be blighted. The duke and duchess had formed themselves into a party which they called the "Congregation." The papists, on their side, prepared the way for the Earl of Guilford Dudley, and the Duke of Norfolk, who were in favour with the protestants, but the Duke of Norfolk, by her duplicity, resulting from her adherence to the French counsels. An open rebellion ensued, and the Duke of Norfolk was executed.

1558.

Lady Jane Grey.

and who had been of his studies, him more accordingly, were as she received the suffrages of the nobles. The queen on her part, received a reinforcement of troops from France, but retired to Leith, where she was besieged. Her death, which occurred during the siege, and the consciousness of their inability to bring the nation to submit by force, induced the Guises to employ pacific measures. Plenipotentiaries were despatched from France to Edinburgh, and a treaty concluded with Elizabeth's ambassadors; by the terms of which, the French forces were to be withdrawn from Scotland, and Francis and Mary to abstain from assuming the title of king and queen of England. The rights of the protestants were secured by the treaty, which provided for a regency of twelve persons to be chosen jointly by the queen of Scots and the parliament, to govern the realm during her absence. After this the French and English armies both left Scotland.

1559.

Catholics persecuted.

The protestants, still headed by John Knox, now persecuted in their turn. Worship according to the ritual of the Romish church was utterly prohibited by law, and the third offence of this kind made punishable by death.

Meantime the princes of Lorraine, (the Guises) although compelled by the disorders in France, to yield for the present, did not relinquish their design of establishing their niece, Mary, upon the throne of England. Influenced by them, Francis II. and Mary, now king and queen of France, refused to ratify the treaty which their ambassadors had made in Edinburgh, and continued to assume the title and arms of monarchs of England.

1560.

Return of the queen of Scots.

The sudden death of Francis left Mary (now no longer queen of France) at liberty to return to Scotland; and a deputation of her subjects arrived with a pressing invitation that she should assume the government. She complied, and bade adieu to her beloved France, with tears and lamentations, and dark forebodings of the difficulties to which her youth, inexperience, and the divided counsels of her kingdom would expose her.

On her arrival she was received with joy, and by her first measures acquired the confidence of the protestant party. Mary, however, was a papist; and her adherence to the regular celebration of mass soon awakened the jealousy, and at length alienated the affec-

as of those of her subjects over whom Knox held a controlling  
ence,\* and she thenceforth received from them abusive treat-  
and, on some occasions, outrageous insults.

At some time after Mary assumed the reins of government, there  
peace between England and Scotland ; and apparently, the most  
dial friendship between the rival queens. Among the aspirants  
for the favour of the beautiful queen of Scots was the young lord  
Darnley, who by the elegance of his person caught  
her eye and her fancy ; and she gave him her hand,  
without sufficiently knowing or regarding his moral  
and intellectual character.

1565.

Mary marries  
Darnley.

Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, was the eldest son of the earl of  
Lenox, and Mary's cousin-german ; his mother being Margaret  
Douglas, niece to Henry VIII. After Mary, therefore, Darnley was  
next heir to the English crown. Policy, if she intended to prosecute  
her claim to the English throne, might have had its influence with  
her in raising him to be the partner of her sway. This meas-  
ure excited the jealousy of the vigilant Elizabeth ; and she incited  
the Scottish protestants to oppose the connexion. Darnley, weak  
and vain, and savage in his temper, soon ceased to pay to the lovely  
Mary, the homage her heart demanded, and to which she had been  
accustomed in France. The society of Rizzio, an

1566.

Murder of Rizzio.

Italian, her private secretary, was agreeable to the  
queen. The jealous Darnley, with some of his  
friends, entered into her apartment, dragged the Italian from her  
presence, and murdered him in the room adjoining. The birth of  
her son James followed this tragical event.

A few months after this, the house in which Darnley slept was  
destroyed by an explosion of gun-powder, and he  
was killed. The earl of Bothwell was supposed to  
be the author of this atrocious deed ; and rumour  
attributed to the queen a share of the guilt. Both-  
well, after a mock-trial, was exculpated from the charge of murder.  
The queen exalted him to high honours and offices ; and about three  
months after the murder of her husband, she married him.

1567.

Darnley murdered  
by Bothwell.

The earl of Bothwell was supposed to  
be the author of this atrocious deed ; and rumour  
attributed to the queen a share of the guilt. Both-  
well, after a mock-trial, was exculpated from the charge of murder.  
The queen exalted him to high honours and offices ; and about three  
months after the murder of her husband, she married him.

An attempt of the infamous Bothwell to get possession of the  
infant James, drove the indignant nobles to arms.  
The Scots revolt. Mary also assembled forces ; but on witnessing the  
reluctance of her troops to fight in defence of Bothwell, and receiving  
assurances from the confederated lords, of their willingness to submit  
to her government, provided Bothwell were banished from her coun-  
cils, she dismissed him, and he fled to the Orkneys. Here his  
piracies raised up new enemies, and he was finally captured, and  
died unpitied in a prison in Norway. The queen herself was kept  
a prisoner in the castle of Loch Leven, (on the east coast of Scotland  
in Inverness,) by the confederated lords, who took upon themselves

\* A table is now shown (the fragments having been collected) in Holy Rood house,  
at Edinburgh, on which stood an image of the virgin, which John Knox, intruding  
himself into the private apartment of his sovereign, dashed to pieces in her presence.

the administration of the government ; and, compelling her to resign, they proclaimed her son king, under the title of James VI. ; making the earl Murray regent of the kingdom.

James VI.

Tired of confinement, Mary, by the aid of the chivalric young Douglas, a captive to her charms, escaped from her prison, and rashly threw herself upon the generosity of Elizabeth for protection. The English queen unjustly made her a prisoner, and contrary

1568.

Mary seeks protection from Elizabeth.

to the laws of nations, (Mary being like herself, an independent sovereign,) she assumed to try her before a court of English and French commissioners, on the charge of being accessory to the death of her husband. Mary, though she objected to the jurisdiction, denied the charge ; but was pronounced guilty, and thenceforth was kept a prisoner in England, always strictly guarded, and sometimes poorly accommodated. Nineteen years after her first trial, she was tried again, on the accusation of being engaged in a conspiracy against the life of

1587.

Mary executed.

Elizabeth ; condemned, and executed at Fotheringay castle. The misfortunes of the lovely queen of Scots, insensibly lead the heart to regard her with sympathy, and throw a veil over her imprudence ; it may be her crimes.

The internal administration of the English government was, during this period, wise and vigorous ; and the nation rose to wealth and consequence, more rapidly than at any former period. The religion of the reformation was permanently established ; and troops were sent to France to aid the distressed protestants in that kingdom.

England and Spain were at this period, the two most powerful nations of Europe ; and the interests of the two monarchs being

1557.

War with Philip of Spain.

opposed, pretexts for hostilities were found. Philip was at the head of a league formed among the catholic powers, for the suppression of heresy ; while Elizabeth was regarded as the leader of the protestant party. Philip espoused the interests of Mary, queen of Scots, encouraged and strengthened insurrections in England, and despatched a body of Spaniards and Italians, to assist the Irish in a rebellion against the English government. Elizabeth, by the vigour of her arms, crushed the rebellion, and yielded effectual support to the inhabitants of the Low Countries ; who had for sometime been engaged in war with Philip. England was now alarmed with the

The "Invincible Armada."

intelligence that the Spanish monarch had prepared an immense fleet, styled the "Invincible Armada," for the invasion of the island. Philip laid every part of his vast dominions under contribution ; and the length and nature of his warlike preparations, betokened that the enterprise contemplated nothing less for its object than the entire conquest of England. Indeed so confident were the Spaniards of success, that many nobles attended the armament, merely to receive a share in the division of the country.



Elizabeth was fully awake to the emergency. She superintended the military preparations herself. She mounted her horse, rode forth and inspected her troops at Tilbury, awakened their hopes, and aroused their energies. The armada, from which such mighty achievements were expected, was attacked in the Channel by the

English admiral, lord Howard, several ships taken, and others sunk, or damaged; so that the Spanish commander, the duke of Parma, deemed it prudent to return to Spain for repairs. The winds proving contrary, he sailed around the island. Off the Orkneys, a severe storm dispersed and wrecked the fleet. One half of the vessels, and a still greater proportion of the seamen and soldiers, were destroyed. Thus ended this formidable invasion. Elizabeth continued during the remainder of her reign, to assist the Low Countries; and in other ways to annoy Philip.

Parliament during this reign displayed the most abject submission to the will of the queen. Finding that, with the aid of the ministers, whom she chose with judgment, and supported with constancy, she governed well, and was not of a temper to brook contradiction, they passively submitted; thus establishing precedents of submission to royal prerogative which brought future troubles upon the nation.

In this reign, Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe, (an exploit which filled Europe with astonishment,) commercial relations were entered into with Russia and Turkey, and Virginia, the first English colony in America, was founded.

1572.

Sir Francis Drake.

1603.

Settlement of Virginia.

## CHAPTER II.

### SPAIN, PORTUGAL, AND THE NETHERLANDS.

The treaty of Chateau Cambresis being concluded, Philip, after quieting the disturbances in the Netherlands, returned to Spain; where his utmost efforts, aided by the tortures of the Inquisition, were exerted for the extirpation of heresy from his dominions.\* He gave orders that all heretics in Spain, Italy, the Indies, and the Netherlands, should be forthwith converted or put to death.

The Netherlands had now become wealthy by their commerce and manufactures, and the government of their cities had contributed to foster a spirit of freedom, both in civil and religious matters. The

\* It is reported, that having encountered a severe storm at sea, on his first landing he threw himself on his knees, and in gratitude for his own preservation, vowed to devote the remainder of his life to destroying heretics!

1572. The Netherlands revolt. persecutions of Philip at length produced a revolt. The duke of Alva, whose cruelties rendered him particularly odious, was commissioned as governor of the Netherlands; and a large body of Spanish and Italian soldiers placed under his command. The counts Egmont and Horn, who had taken the lead among their countrymen, were executed by the orders of Alva. William of Nassau, prince of Orange, now succeeded them in command. He enlisted in his service a body of the German protestants, but was unable to bring the Spanish general to an engagement; and having possession of no fortified place, was compelled to disband his army. The tyranny of Alva increased, and many of the Dutch fled from their country, and took refuge in England. Their privateers, who had been permitted to dispose of their prizes in the English ports, were at length, on the remonstrances of the Spanish court, excluded. This compelled them to seek a harbour of their own; and they seized and fortified the Brille, a port in Holland. Many towns now yielded to the prince of Orange; and Alva, foreseeing the length and probable result of the war, petitioned to be recalled. It was his boast, that during the five years of his command in the Netherlands, eighteen thousand heretics had perished by the hands of the public executioner.

Requesens, the succeeding governor, tried the efficacy of milder measures; but the disease was past remedy, and the inhabitants, smarting under their recent oppressions, continued the war with various success. A detachment under Louis, brother to the prince of Orange, was defeated by the Spaniards, and the commander left dead on the field of battle. The Spaniards laid siege to Leyden; but the Dutch endured the extreme of misery, rather than capitulate; and having opened their dykes and sluices, a powerful wind impelled the waters with fury against the works of the besiegers, and compelled them to retreat. The emperor Ferdinand of Germany attempted in vain to effect a reconciliation between the king of Spain and the States. The Dutch offered the sovereignty of the Low Countries to Elizabeth, but she prudently declined it. After the war had raged for years, a treaty,

1574. Leyden besieged. called the pacification of Ghent, was concluded, by which it was stipulated that all foreign troops should be expelled, and the inquisition in the Netherlands abolished.

1576. Pacification of Ghent. Requesens in the meantime died, and Don John of Austria succeeded him. After a time he violated the treaty, and the war was renewed. The divisions between the states had prevented any vigorous efforts against the common enemy. The prince of Orange exerted himself to produce a union, and procured a meeting of deputies at Utrecht,

1579.

The Republic of  
Holland commences.

from Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overysse and Guelderland; who signed the articles called the union of the Seven United Provinces. Thus commenced the **REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND**.

The duke of Parma, one of the most accomplished generals of the age, now commanded the Spanish forces. The States doubting their ability to withstand the power of Spain, again offered the sovereignty to Elizabeth, and on her second rejection of it, to the duke of Anjou; renouncing all allegiance to Philip. The duke of Anjou, by an attempt upon the liberty of the States, lost their confidence, and was obliged to return to France, where he soon after died. The command of the confederates now devolved upon the prince of Orange, who through his whole life was faithful to the liberties of his countrymen. They were, however, soon deprived of him, by an assassin whom a reward offered by Philip had instigated to the ruthless deed. The States appointed his son Maurice to succeed him in command.

1584.

Prince of Orange  
assassinated.

The duke of Parma, having reduced Ghent and Brussels, besieged Antwerp, the richest and most populous city in the Netherlands. The inhabitants made every effort to save the city, but were at last obliged to capitulate. At this disastrous juncture, when the provinces were ready to sink under continued efforts, Elizabeth finding her interest now united with theirs, embarked heartily in their cause. The earl

1585.

Elizabeth aids the  
Dutch.

of Leicester was despatched thither, with six thousand English troops, while Sir Francis Drake was sent to attack the Spaniards in the West Indies. Leicester, having failed to render any effectual assistance, was recalled, and lord Willoughby appointed to the command of the English forces.

Prince Maurice now gained upon his adversary. The duke of Parma was obliged to lead his forces into France several times, in aid of the catholic party there; and he was commanded to prepare for the invasion of England, being required to co-operate with the "Invincible Armada," and thus obliged to neglect the concerns of the Netherlands. On the death of that able commander, Mansfield was appointed to succeed him. Maurice now took Breda, and with the aid of the English, under Sir Francis Vere, made himself master of Gertruydenberg and Groningen. At Turnhout, in Brabant,

1594.

Successes of the  
Dutch.

they obtained a complete victory over the Spaniards. In 1596, the Dutch and English squadrons made a joint attack upon the Spanish fleet, in the bay of Cadiz; destroyed it, and took the city. Philip now began to think of peace, but the states would hearken to no terms which did not recognize their independence. Philip was

Philip transfers his  
claim to Albert of  
Austria.

not prepared for such a measure, but chose rather to transfer his dominion over the revolted provinces to his daughter Isabella, who was affianced to Albert, the duke of Austria.

Albert, after his marriage, endeavoured to prevail on the United Provinces to submit, by promises of lenity. They disregarded his advances, and resolved upon liberty or death. Albert now issued a decree, excluding them from all intercourse with Spain, Portugal, and the Spanish Netherlands. This, though designed to injure their commerce, had a contrary effect, and changed the current of their trade, without lessening its profit. The hostile parties now strengthened their armies. Prince Maurice enlisted bodies of Germans, Swiss, and French. The arch-duke received supplies from Spain,

1600.

Battle of Nieuport.

Italy, and Germany. A sanguinary battle was fought at Nieuport, near Ostend, in West Flanders; in which the Dutch and English obtained the victory. Albert was soon again in the field with a powerful force, and

1604.

Ostend capitulates.

laid siege to Ostend. After a memorable siege, which lasted more than three years, and cost the arch-duke the lives of 70,000 men, Ostend capitulated. Prince Maurice, meanwhile, had reduced seven towns, which more than balanced its loss.

After prosecuting the war two years longer, the court of Spain was obliged to content itself with retaining possession of the ten provinces, and treating with the seven who had acceded to the union as an independent nation.

1609.

Independence of the  
seven provinces.

Through the mediation of France and England, a truce of twelve years was concluded, and the enjoyment of their civil and religious liberties guaranteed to the states. —The energy and persevering industry of the Dutch is conspicuous, during this period. Their East India company was established, and their commerce flourished.

While Philip II. had lost one portion of his dominions, he had

1578.

King of Portugal  
invades Morocco.

acquired a new kingdom in Portugal. Don Sebastian, the reigning sovereign, under the influence of the Jesuits, attempted an invasion of Morocco. Sailing for Africa with an army of 20,000 men, his forces were defeated, and he was slain in battle.

1581.

Portugal united to  
Spain.

He was succeeded in his kingdom by his uncle, cardinal Henry. On the death of Henry, who left no children, the line of succession became broken, and many claimants to the crown arose. Philip, although not possessed of the best right, was the most powerful, and was accordingly

1596.

Philip III.

crowned king of Portugal. The whole Spanish peninsula being now united under one monarch, was, on the death of Philip II., transmitted to his son Philip III.

## CHAPTER III.

## FRANCE.

## SECTION I.

The death of Henry II., shortly after the treaty of Chateau Cambresis, left the throne of France to his son, Francis, II., who had married Mary, queen of Scots. Many causes conspired at this time to make France the scene of contention and discord. The protestant religion had not only taken a deep hold of the affections of the French people, but numbered among its disciples many of the nobility of the first rank. The prince of Condé, admiral Coligni, and many other important personages, were among their number. The family of the Guises was at the head of the catholic party. The duke of Guise, and the cardinal Lorraine, uncles to Mary, queen of Scots, (at this time queen of France also,) were at the head of this family; and in fact, through their influence over the young Francis, they were at this period at the head of the whole French nation. They instigated him to a persecution against the protestants. They entered into a conspiracy to obtain possession of the person of the king, and wrest the government from their hands. They attacked, for this purpose, the castle of Amboin, but were defeated by the royal troops. The king now, for the first time, discovered the hatred which he had incurred, and began to mistrust the Guises. The queen mother, Catharine de Medici, now also opposed them. This led them to the adoption of milder measures. Condé, who had been made prisoner, was released. The Guises, however, shortly after recovered their influence with the court.

The sudden death of Francis II., transferred the supreme authority to his mother, who exercised the office of regent during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Catharine sought to render her own power paramount, by balancing the opposing factions, and steering a middle course between them. De l'Hôpital, whom she made chancellor, was an upright and honest man, though he was a catholic. The queen, under his influence, showed some favour to the protestants. A meeting of catholic and protestant divines took place at Poissy, where the cardinal Lorraine, on the part of the catholics, and Theodore Berce on that of the protestants, held a theological dispute, but without coming to any amicable understanding. Meanwhile, a deputation from the different parliaments of the kingdom, published an edict granting toleration to the protestants, or Huguenots as they were called, and permitting them to assemble for worship, without the walls of the town.

The Guises left the court, indignant that such toleration should be

granted to heretics. But during the absence of the queen and court from Paris, the duke of Guise returned thither. Upon his arrival the populace rose in his favour, and evinced great zeal in the catholic cause. Catharine and her son had retired to Fontainebleau. The duke and his party brought back the queen to Paris.

The protestants prevailed in the south and west of France, and under the prince of Condé, made Orleans their head quarters. The England and Spain catholics entered into a league with Philip of Spain, interfere. and the protestants with Elizabeth of England.

Havre de Grace was yielded to Elizabeth, and a body of 6,000 troops furnished by her. The catholics besieged Rouen, which after a bloody defence, surrendered. Anthony of Bourbon, king of Navarre, who had at first favoured, but afterwards abandoned the protestant cause, was here slain. His queen, Jeanne d'Albert, with her young son, afterwards the gallant Henry IV., still adhered to the protestants.

1560.

Battle of Dreux.

The first important battle was fought at Dreux, forty-five miles from Paris. The prince of Condé, and the admiral Coligni, commanded the protestants.

The duke of Guise, and the constable Montmorenci, the catholics. The contest was obstinate, but terminated in the defeat of the protestants. Admiral Coligni retreated from the field with the remnant of the army, and the prince of Conde was made prisoner. The duke of Guise, not long after this, was shot by an assassin, while engaged in the siege of Orleans.

An accommodation now took place between the hostile parties, and the protestants were granted the liberty of worship within those towns of which they were in possession, and peace was restored.

Charles IX. had imbibed from the Guises, an inveterate hostility to the protestants. This, and other causes, led Catharine, who had heretofore wavered between the parties, as her interest dictated, to embrace with zeal that of the catholics. The liberty granted to the protestants was soon abridged. A meeting between the young monarch and his sister, the queen of Spain, was arranged to take place at Bayonne, in France, near the Pyrenees. At this conference, which Catharine, and the duke of Alva, as minister of Philip,

1566.

The LEAGUE.

attended; a LEAGUE, miscalled "holy," was formed for the extirpation of heresy. Meanwhile

the cardinal Lorraine was at Rome, concerting measures with the pope for carrying the designs of the leaguers into effect. The protestants under Condé and Coligni, again resorted to

1568.

Battle of St. Denis.

arms; a battle was fought at St. Denis, five miles from Paris, in which the aged constable Montmorenci, commander of the catholics, was slain. The protestants, however, were at length driven from the field. They next laid siege to Chartres; during which time, Catharine betook herself to negotiations, (with her usual artifices,) and another peace, called the "Lame peace," was concluded.

This was soon infringed by an order, dictated by the double dealing Catharine, to arrest Condé and Coligni for treason. They, having kept themselves on their guard, escaped, and again placed them-

1569.

Battle of Jarnac.

selves at the head of the protestant forces. At Jarnac they met, and were defeated by the duke of Anjou, brother of the king. Condé fell in the battle. This defeat, and more especially the death of their commander, threatened ruin to the protestants. Many of the officers refused to obey Coligni, and dissensions ran high in their ranks.

At this juncture, the intrepid Jeanne d'Albert, queen of Navarre, stepped forward, animated the dispirited protestants by her zeal, and furnished them with funds. "Despair not," said

Henry IV.

she, presenting her young son, "behold the new chief that Heaven has sent to command you." From this time, Henry was acknowledged as their leader, although the more experienced Coligni yet guided their councils. This veteran strained every nerve, in again preparing the troops for action; but their first operations were unsuccessful. Poitiers, commanded by the young duke of Guise, was besieged, but an epidemic disorder in the camp, compelled the besiegers to raise the siege.

The army of the duke of Anjou now appeared in the field, and Coligni, urged by his troops, many of whom were German auxiliaries, anxious to return to their homes, hazarded a battle.

1569.

Battle of Montcontour.

The plains of Montcontour now witnessed the entire defeat of the protestants. Nearly 10,000 of their troops were left dead on the field. Coligni, though severely wounded, was soon in the field again, at the head of a formidable army. Having obtained some successes which inspired his army, the court commenced negotiations, and a treaty highly favourable to the protestants was concluded.

Treaty of peace.

Liberty of worship in all the towns of which they were in possession, was again granted them; and their well grounded fears of treachery were lulled, by their being permitted to garrison four strong places. Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac, and La Charité, as guarantees that the conditions would be observed.

History, as if reluctant to defame human nature, by recounting the horrible perfidy concealed under this pretended moderation, shudders,

Treachery of the court.

and pauses in her work. The design of the court was no other, than to lull the fears of the protestant leaders, draw them to the capital, and other cities, and then massacre them all.

On various pretexts, they were induced to come to Paris. Coligni, ever true to his country, was incited by the prospect of commanding in a war with Philip of Spain, for the recovery of Flanders. He was received with the most devoted respect, consulted on every occasion, and addressed by the young monarch with the title of father. The virtuous queen of Navarre came with her young son. A marriage had been proposed for him, with Margaret, the sister of the king; but the suspicious eye of maternal affection saw treachery in the caresses of Catharine; and she withheld her consent. She died suddenly, probably, by poison. The negotiations for the marriage proceeded; and the leaders of the protestants throughout France were summoned to Paris to celebrate its festivities. The wedding took

place on the seventeenth of August, and Paris resounded with mirth and revelry.

At the stillness of midnight, on the eve of St. Bartholomew's day, August 24th, the tocsin bell of St. Germain L'Auxerrois, awoke the slumbers of the capital. It was the signal to begin the dreadful massacre. The morning light looked upon more than ten thousand bleeding corpses of the protestants, strewed throughout the streets, and within the houses and sanctuaries of Paris. Men, women, and infants, were slain. In other parts of France, there were put to death fifty thousand more. The catholic family of Montmorenci gave funeral honours to the mangled remains of Coligni. Pope Pius V., on hearing of the massacre, was affected to tears; but Gregory XII., who at this time succeeded him, insulted the majesty of heaven by returning public thanks for these atrocious cruelties.

Charles, meanwhile, was seized with all the horrors of remorse. When the assassins, who had acted by his authority, came to relate, and make a merit of their bloody deeds, the spectators beheld him, shuddering as if with cold. He hated from that time his wicked mother, and the Guises. "I know not," said he to his confidential physician, "what has happened to me, but in mind and body I am shaking as in a fever. It seems to me every moment, whether waking or sleeping, that mangled bodies present themselves to me with hideous faces, and covered with blood." No earthly medicine could reach the seat of his disease. On the day of Pentecost, 1574, he died at the chateau of Vincennes, in the most agonizing tortures, and bathed in his own blood, which had oozed from his veins.\*

## SECTION II.

Henry, duke of Anjou, brother of the late king, ascended the throne. The catholics now formed the celebrated league for the defence of religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. War was declared against the king of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV., who had escaped the massacre of St. Bartholomew. The league had in the field two armies, each 20,000 strong, while Henry could raise at the most, only 5,000 men; yet his valour, and that of his few followers, sustained him.

At Contras he encountered an army of the royalists, which he defeated, but was unable to reap the advantages which this victory gave him. Without funds, he had no means of paying his troops, and a great part of them left him soon after the battle.

The designs of the league now became apparent. Guise was openly solicited to dethrone Henry, and take the sceptre into his own hands. This he dared not do; but he instigated the Parisians, who

\* See Sully's Memoirs.



had organized a military force of 20,000 men, to seize the person of the king. The Parisians failed in their attempt, and Guise proceeded to Paris to accomplish it himself; but the king escaped, and took refuge at Rouen. Guise, finding many difficulties in the way of his usurpation, entered into a compromise with (Henry of France,) and was appointed lieutenant general of the kingdom. Henry now felt himself

Death of the plotters  
of the massacre of  
St. Bartholomew.

unsafe upon his throne, while his rival was in being; and Guise was assassinated by his orders, as he was entering the council chamber. His brother, the cardinal, was sent to prison, where he was also

shortly after slain; and about this time died, too, that faithless queen, and wicked woman, Catharine de Medici.

The partisans of the league were incensed against the king for the assassination of their leader, and the duke of Mayenne, his surviving brother, was now placed at its head. The pope denounced Henry as an heretic.

Mayenne head of the  
league.

In these circumstances, he negotiated with the king of Navarre, who, at the head of their united forces, marched to Paris, and invested it.

Henry III. assassi-  
nated.

The French monarch retired to St. Cloud, where the dagger of an assassin, suborned by the duchess of Montpensier, sister to the duke of Guise, accom-

plished his death.

The king of Navarre now claimed the throne of France, as being the nearest heir; and Henry, when dying, had declared him his successor. He now therefore assumed the title of Henry IV. The duke of Mayenne caused the cardinal Bourbon, to be proclaimed under the name of Charles X.; but he being a prisoner at Tours, Mayenne took the whole command of the war.

Henry IV.

The army of the league, numbering 20,000 disciplined troops, and that of Henry, consisting of less than a fourth of that number, met at

Henry victorious at  
Arques.

Arques, on the Seine. At the moment that his friends gave up all as lost, and his forces were over-

powered by the enemy, Henry, rushing into the thickest of the battle, exclaimed, "In all France are there not fifty gentlemen to die with their king?" This cry reanimated the faltering troops, who rallied, renewed the fight, and became masters of the field. Henry soon after received reinforcements from England, while Mayenne obtained supplies from the king of Spain. Disastrous was the civil war which now wasted the fair fields of France, where brothers and former friends were now shedding each other's blood.\*

\* It was during these wars that the marquis of Rosmy, afterwards the duke of Sully, and ever attached to the fortunes of Henry, hearing that his wife was dangerously sick, went in disguise, with a few followers, to his castle, to visit her. His brothers, on the side of the catholics, had taken his castle, and deaf to his earnest pleadings, refused to admit him to visit his dying wife. The daring Rosmy prepared to attack his own castle, when his brothers permitted him to enter. Thus he obtained from their fears, what he could not gain from their affection.

Henry victorious at  
Ivry, and invests  
Paris.

On the plain of Ivry another battle took place. Henry, in directing it, said to his troops, "If you love your standards, follow my white plume; you will find it in the way to victory and honour." His prediction was accomplished, and his enemies defeated. Henry had invested the capital; and now used every effort to induce the Parisians to submit, but they refused. His heart was pained to witness the distress to which they were reduced by famine, and he suffered those who wished to leave the city to pass his lines in safety; and even, (although blamed by his officers,) granted a passage to several convoys of provisions, destined for the city.

Meanwhile the duke of Mayenne, who had been to Flanders, returned, reinforced by Spanish forces, under the prince of Parma. Henry was compelled to withdraw his forces from the siege, to oppose the Spaniards; whom, however, he was at last unable to bring to a combat. Their object being the relief of the city, when that was accomplished, they withdrew from France.

The cardinal of Bourbon was now dead. The exploits of Henry had filled Europe with his martial fame. The strictness with which he kept his faith when once plighted, and the constancy of his attachment to his friends, made him confided in; and he had displayed a benevolence, which should have touched the hearts of his people. But worn out as France was with the wars of the league, still such was the bigotry of the times, Henry was convinced he could not be king of France, unless he became a catholic. The protestant divines counselled him rather to renounce protestantism, than to continue the war. He accordingly did so, and was received into the bosom of the catholic church. By this measure, the league received a blow from which it could never recover. Paris capitulated, and Henry was received into the city. The provinces gradually followed the example of the capital, until at length the whole nation submitted. Mayenne, supported by the Spanish interest, continued for a time in arms; but after the pope had absolved Henry, this officer made his submission, was received into favour, and ever after remained a firm friend to his monarch.

1589.  
Henry enters Paris.  
Mayenne submits.

The opposition of the protestants, whose suspicions began to be excited by a delay in securing their rights, and by the disposal of all the great offices to the catholics, prevented Henry from carrying on vigorously the war against Spain. The Spaniards took Calais and Amiens, and it was with difficulty that Henry could, in the exhausted state of his finances, raise an army to withstand them. At length, at the head of such forces as he could assemble, he advanced to Amiens, which he invested, and compelled the city to surrender. He next came to an accommodation with the protestants, granting them, by the celebrated

1596.  
Calais taken by the  
Spaniards.

1598.  
Edict of Nantes.

the protestants, granting them, by the celebrated edict of Nantes, the enjoyment of their religion, and admission to public offices. Ambassadors now met at Vervins, 20 miles from Paris,

Peace with Spain. where a peace with Spain was concluded, on terms favourable to France.

Although policy compelled Henry to grant most of the high offices to catholics, yet his chosen friend and counsellor, from the beginning to the end of his career, was a protestant. This

Duke of Sully.

was the wise duke of Sully. The economy and discreet management of this minister, brought the totally deranged finances of the kingdom to order, and soon placed at the disposal of his beloved monarch, a well furnished treasury. Henry, constantly seconded by Sully, followed the bent of his benevolent heart, in studying to promote the welfare of his kingdom. Commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, all received a new impulse. Nor did he limit his de-

Henry's plan for abolishing war.

sires of doing good to his own subjects, but conceived the great design of banishing war from Europe, by uniting the great powers in one confederacy, establishing a grand council after the model of the Amphictyonic, to which all the principal states of Europe should send their delegates, and refer their differences. Sully at first opposed his views as visionary, but afterwards entered fully into them. Elizabeth of England, for whom Henry had a high respect, was also a party to the project.\* It was the opinion of these sovereigns, that the house of Austria must first be humbled, before this project could be carried into effect. The death of Elizabeth was deplored by Henry; yet he pro-

1610.

Henry assassinated.

obscure assassin.

The French nation wept for him as for a father. The vile assassin, (whose name the afflicted Sully never would pronounce,) suffered a terrible death.

## CHAPTER IV.

### SECTION I.

#### GERMANY.

The reign of Ferdinand I., who succeeded Charles V., as emperor of Germany, was short, and occupied in attempting to compose the religious differences which agitated the empire. In the diet of Ratisbon, assembled

1556.

Ferdinand I.

\* This is stated on the authority of the duke of Sully—see his excellent memoirs. Some writers have treated Henry's great design with levity, considering it as a mere covering to his views against the house of Austria. The character of Elizabeth makes it not improbable, that this motive was predominant with her; but Henry had a great and benevolent heart, as well as a fertile mind. And is it not rather astonishing, that the powers of Europe should not to this day, have adopted this equitable plan of settling their differences?

soon after his accession, the "peace of religion" was confirmed. This reign is memorable for the last meeting of a general council. It was held at Trent.

Maximilian II., successor of Ferdinand, was early in his reign engaged in war with Solyman I., who had planned the conquest of Germany. The success of the imperial

1564.

Maximilian II.

generals checked the progress of the Ottoman arms, and on the death of Solyman, his son and successor Selim II., concluded a peace of twelve years with the empire. The remaining years of the reign of Maximilian, were passed in tranquillity.

He was succeeded by his son, Rodolph II., during whose long reign, the empire continued almost undisturbed by intestine

1576.

Rodolph II.

broils. He was himself of a peaceful temper, and devoted much of his time to the studies of astronomy and astrology, in which he was instructed by Tycho Brahe. His brother Matthias conducted the war with the Turks, who had invaded Hungary; and the renown and influence he acquired by his success, enabled him to obtain the crown of Hungary, and make himself master of Austria and Moravia, all of which Rodolph confirmed to him, rather than involve the empire in civil war.

## SECTION II.

### THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

The sultan Solyman, besides the war which he carried on with the German empire, during the reign of Maximilian, despatched a fleet and army to reduce the island of Malta, where the knights of St. John had been established, and still maintained themselves. The

1565.

Turks besiege  
Malta.

Turkish general, Mustapha, besieged the island; but the governor of Sicily coming to the aid of the knights, the Turks, after a siege of five months, with the loss of 24,000 men, were obliged to abandon the enterprise. Solyman died at the age of seventy, and was succeeded by his son, Selim II. Selim, after having concluded a peace with Germany, turned his arms eastward; but failing in his attempt to reduce Persia, he invaded the island of Cyprus, which belonged to the republic of Venice. A league was formed between the pope, Pius V.,

1571.

Turks conquer Cy-  
prus.

the king of Spain, and the Venetians, for its defence. Their forces failing to arrive in season, the Turks conquered the island, and subjected its inhabitants to the most inhuman cruelties. They extended their ravages to the coasts of Italy, of Dalmatia, and of Istria. The pope, Philip II., and the Venetians, assembled their fleet, and a naval

Battle of Lepanto.

engagement between them and the Turks, took place in the gulf of Lepanto. For duration, fierceness, and destruction of human life, it was at that period unequalled. The Christians, commanded by Don John, of Austria, were at length victorious. The Turks lost 30,000 men, and their fleet was mostly

taken or destroyed. The Christians lost 10,000 men, and derived no solid advantage from the victory. The following season, Selim equipped another fleet, which again spread the terrour of the Turkish arms.

1572.

Turks and Christians make peace.

Philip soon found his attention drawn to the Low Countries ; and the Venetians concluded a treaty, by which Cyprus was left in possession of the Turks. Tunis, which had been taken by Don John of Austria, was retaken by the sultan.

The three sultans who immediately succeeded Selim, did not extend the Turkish conquests.

## PERIOD III.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

The assassination { SECOND EPOCH, 1610 A. D. } of Henry IV.

TO THE

The execution of Charles I. of England, { THIRD EPOCH, 1648 A. D. } and the treaty of Westphalia.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### GERMANY.

THE death of Rodolph at this period, left the imperial throne to his brother, the arch-duke Matthias. The protestant princes had formed a confederacy called the Evangelical Union. Matthias had hitherto shown himself friendly to them, and they now pressed him for an extension of their privileges ; but no longer feeling the need of their friendship, he resisted their demands, and encroached upon their acknowledged rights. He procured the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary for his cousin, Ferdinand, duke of Styria, whom he designed for his successor in the empire. These measures alarmed the Hungarians, the Bohemians, and the members of the Evangelical Union, who now resorted to arms.

Amidst these disorders, Matthias died ; and Ferdinand II. was raised to the imperial throne. The Bohemians continued their revolt, deposed Ferdinand, and elected to the sovereignty of that kingdom, Frederic V., elector palatine of the Rhine ; who had married the daughter of James I., reigning sovereign of England. Besides the support of the protestant princes of the empire, Frederic received the aid of Bethlem Gabor, the voivode of Transylvania, a tributary of the grand sultan ; a body of 8,000 troops from the Low Countries, under Henry, prince of Nassau ; and 2,000 English volunteers. His preparations, were, however, inadequate for the war ; in which he had to withstand the united strength of the emperor, the king of Spain, and the arch-duke of Austria. The imperialists

drove Frederic from his palatinate, and degraded him from his electoral dignity, which was conferred upon the duke of Bavaria.

A new league was now formed, with Christian IV., king of Denmark, at its head, having for its object, the restoration of Frederic. The attempt was unsuccessful, and Christian was obliged to sue for peace.

The ambition of Ferdinand growing with his success, he now aspired to establish a despotic power in Germany, to reduce the princes to the rank of nobles, and to revive the imperial jurisdiction in Italy. His first attempt upon the protestant princes, was made by an edict requiring them to restore the church lands and benefices which they had possessed since the peace of Passau. The princes remonstrated, and urged that the edict was illegal. Ferdinand persisted, and the protestants formed a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden.

This monarch had already shown his valour in war, and his wisdom in peace; and Sweden under his government had attained a rank unknown in any former age. He was a zealous protestant, and he deemed it policy to unite with those powers who sought to weaken the dreaded influence of the house of Austria. Furthermore, the emperor had incurred his displeasure, by assisting the Poles in their wars with the Swedes. He therefore formed an alliance with the court of France, where the influence of cardinal Richlieu, who sympathized with Gustavus in the desire of curbing the Austrian power, was at this time supreme. Holland also came into the alliance; and Charles I. of England furnished the allies with 6,000 men.

Gustavus entered Pomerania, and made himself master of many important places. At Leipzic, he obtained a complete victory over the imperial forces, under the command of Tilly, an able general. All the members of the "Evangelical Union" now joined his standard; and he possessed himself of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine. Tilly having been killed, Wallenstein, a renowned general, succeeded him in the command of the imperial army.

At Lutzen, Gustavus offered him battle. The contest lasted from day-break till sun-set, when the obstinate valour of the Swedes at length triumphed over the superior numbers of their enemy; but Gustavus perished in the conflict. When wounded on the field of battle, and asked by the enemy who he was, "I am," said he, "the king of Sweden, and I seal with my blood the protestant religion, and the liberties of Germany."

As Gustavus left but one child, Christina, a daughter of six years of age, the government of Sweden was now in the hands of a regency. The war, however, was conducted with vigour, and officers, formed in the school of Gustavus, were soon sent into Germany.

Ferdinand irritates  
the protestants.

1626.

League with Gustavus Adolphus, cardinal Richlieu and others.

1631.

Successes of Gustavus.

1632.

Gustavus slain at  
Lutzen.

The imperial general, Wallenstein, being assassinated, the command was given to Ferdinand, king of Hungary, eldest son of the emperor. The accession of the dukes of Lorraine and Bavaria, with a reinforcement of Spanish troops, at this time, strengthened the imperial party. The army of the confederates, under the command

1634.

Battle of Nordlingen.

of general Horn and the duke of Saxe-Weimar, encountered the forces of the king of Hungary at Nordlingen. One of the most bloody battles recorded in history ensued. It ended in the total defeat of the Swedes.

The emperor now negotiated the treaty of Prague, by which he left the protestants in the possession of the church property, and permitted the free exercise of their religion, throughout the empire, with the exception

1635.

Treaty of Prague.

of the kingdom of Bohemia, and the provinces of the house of Austria.

A new alliance was formed between Sweden and France, and the

1636.

New alliance between Sweden and France.

latter kingdom now actively participated in the war. In upper Germany, the elector of Saxony was defeated by the Swedish general, Bannier, in a battle fought at Wittstock.—Ferdinand III., on the death of his father, succeeded to the imperial throne, and continued the war against Sweden, France, and the protestants.—The duke of Saxe Weimar de-

1637.

Ferdinand III.

feated the imperial army near Brisac, and reduced this with many other towns.

In the meantime, the Swedes were equally triumphant in Pomera-

1640.

Successes of the Swedes under Bannier.

nia. Bannier crossed the Elbe, entered Saxony, obtained advantages over the imperialists in several slight engagements, and near Chemnitz, gained a complete victory. He next invaded Bohemia, and at Brandeiz fought the imperialists, under general

Hofakirk, and again victorious, he pursued the retreating army to the walls of Prague, and took the imperial general prisoner.

Bannier next formed a plan of attacking Ratisbon, during the session of a diet which the emperor had there convened. Joined by the French army under Guelriant, he crossed the Danube on the ice, captured 1,500 of the enemy's horse, and seized the equipage and advance guard of the emperor, who himself narrowly escaped being made a prisoner. An unexpected thaw saved the city, and compelled Bannier to recross the river.—A powerful army now assembled under general Piccolomini, and the arch-duke Leopold. Bannier marched through Bohemia followed by the imperial general. At Zittau, he was joined by the French under Guelriant, but before any decisive action could take place, death deprived the confederates of the counsels of the Swedish general.



Torstenson, another general who had served under Gustavus

1641.

Torstenson succeeds  
Bannier,

Adolphus, was sent from Sweden to succeed him, and with him a strong reinforcement of troops, and a large sum of money. Before the arrival of Torstenson, Guelriant had led his forces to battle, and defeated the imperialists near Wolfenbittel. After his arrival, the French and Swedes again separated. Guelriant entered Westphalia, and Torstenson, Bohemia.

In the ensuing campaign, Guelriant defeated the imperial general, and made himself master of almost the whole electorate of Cologne. Torstenson obtained two victories over the imperialists; after which he reduced Leipzic. The court of Vienna was in dismay. Negotiations were now commenced, which were however retarded by the death of Louis-XIII., and of cardinal Richelieu.

During these conferences, Torstenson invaded Holstein; the king

Hostilities between  
Sweden and Den-  
mark.

of Denmark having exhibited evidence of hostility towards Sweden. Christian IV., the Danish king, now implored the aid of the emperor, who despatched one of his generals to withstand the army of

Torstenson. The mediation of France soon produced an accommodation between these northern powers, and enabled Sweden to turn all her energy against the empire.

France and Sweden also entered into a treaty with the voivode of Transylvania, who by invading Hungary, divided the forces of the empire. Torstenson invaded Bohemia, and after an unsuccessful

1645.

Imperialists defeated  
at Thabor.

attempt at surprising Prague, drew the imperialists into an engagement near Thabor, where he defeated them with great slaughter. Many towns now submitted to the conquerors, who became masters of the Danube on the side of Moravia. In the meantime, the imperialists, under the elector of Bavaria, met the French, now under the command of the marshal Turenne, and defeated them on the plains of Mariendal.

Turenne, however, made a successful retreat, crossed the Maine in

Successes of the  
French under  
Turenne.

safety, and soon after received a reinforcement of 8,000 men, under the duke d'Enghien, (afterwards the great Condé,) and at Nordlingen encountered the imperialists, and was now victorious. The success of Turenne spread terror through the provinces, and induced the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, and the German princes, to renounce the alliance with the emperor, and make peace with France.

The following year, however, the elector of Bavaria renewed his alliance with the emperor, and uniting his forces with the imperialists, obliged Wrangel, the Swedish general who had succeeded Tors-

1647.

Successes of the  
Swedes.

tenson, to abandon Bohemia. The following spring, Wrangel, joined by Turenne, fought the imperialists and defeated them in a battle at Zummerhausen. Koningsmark, another Swedish general, surprised the new city of Prague, and made himself master of it.

The emperor now sued earnestly for peace, and the negotiations resulted in the treaty of Westphalia, signed October 24, 1648. Its conditions showed that the pride of the emperor was humbled. To France were granted Alsatia, Brisac, and the sovereignty of Metz, Toul, and Verdun. To Sweden, five millions of crowns, with Upper Pomerania, the isle of Rugen, and part of Lower Pomerania, Wismar, Bremar, and Verden, to be held as fiefs of the empire. The upper palatinate, with the electoral dignity, was continued to the duke of Bavaria, while the lower palatinate was restored to Charles Louis, son of the deposed elector; an eighth electorate being established on his account. The republic of Switzerland was declared to be a sovereign state, free from the jurisdiction of the empire; and "*the three religions*, Catholic, Lutheran and Calvinistic," were each admitted to the free enjoyment of their several tenets.

## CHAPTER II.

### FRANCE.

Henry IV., as has been related, married, at an early age, Margaret, sister to the king of France. He afterwards divorced her, and married Mary de Medici, a weak and passionate woman, whom he too often irritated by his prominent fault, a want of conjugal fidelity. She on her part, incapable of appreciating the noble energies of his character, or seeking by discreet measures to win his wandering affections, did but make herself disagreeable by continual reproaches, and by keeping around her, Italian favourites whom he particularly disliked.

On the death of Henry IV., his son, Louis XIII., being a minor, Mary de Medici was made regent by those who expected through her to govern France. She was unfit to hold the reins of government, and especially at a time when they required a firm and vigorous hand. The powerful arm of Henry IV. had scarcely restrained the nobles, who aimed at independence, and always furnished leaders to the malecontents of the kingdom.

Mary soon departed from the line of policy pursued by her husband, and dismissing Sully, trusted the management of affairs to her Italian favourites, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concini. Upon these, and other favourites, she lavished the wealth which Sully by his prudence had accumulated. The catholic party under their auspices, reassumed the ascendant. A union with Spain by the marriage of Louis XIII. with the infanta, was proposed. In the meantime, misrule had brought confusion and distress. The powerful nobles meditated revolt. An assembly of the states general was called, (memorable as the last of these national assemblies, before

the French revolution,) but their meeting was productive of no effect, in removing the grievances of the kingdom.

The young king, under the influence of De Luines, his favourite, was now stirred up to resentment against the Italian favourites of his mother.

1617.

Death of Mary's  
Italian favourites.

Concini was arrested when proceeding to the council chamber at the Louvre, and on pretence of his resistance, shot. Leonora was tried for sorcery. When asked by her accusers, by what process of the black art she acquired such influence over her mistress, she boldly replied, "Simply by the power which a strong mind has over a weak one." But she was burned as a sorceress.

Mary was now exiled to Blois; while De Luines continued to control the king. Richelieu, bishop of Lugon, and afterwards cardinal, effected an accommodation between her and the king. Richelieu made her the tool of his intriguing policy, and with her aid, engaged almost all France in opposition to Louis, and his worthless favourite, De Luines.

The Huguenots, displeased at an attempt of the king to establish the catholic religion, called an assembly at Rochelle, intending, as is supposed, to establish a republic. An army was

1621.

War against the  
Huguenots.

raised, and the command given by De Luines to Lesdiguières, a huguenot who had embraced the Romish faith. The northern provinces which had followed the doctrines of the reformation, were reduced; but in the siege of Montauban, the royalists were defeated with the loss of a great part of their army. De Luines died of chagrin; and the following year a treaty was concluded between the monarch and his protestant subjects, which placed their affairs as they were before this war.

On the death of De Luines, Mary with some difficulty procured Richelieu a seat in the king's council; but the genius of the cardinal thenceforward obtained an entire ascendancy over both monarch and ministers; and Richelieu became in fact, master of the kingdom.

Projects of Riche-  
lieu.

The aim of his policy was to elevate the sovereignty of France, and to this end he wished firstly to destroy the power of the huguenots, whom he disliked as heretics, and whose assemblies he regarded as the prolific source of sedition and insurrection; secondly, to humble the high nobility; and thirdly, to check the engrossing power of the house of Austria.

He concluded an alliance with England, by the marriage of Henrietta, princess of France, to the prince of Wales. He shortly after infringed the treaty last concluded with the huguenots, and having provoked them to rebel, while unprepared for war, defeated their plans, and at last made an accommodation with them favourable to the crown. He next set himself to humble the house of Austria. To this end, he formed first a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, and afterwards, at the death of that monarch, openly joined the Swedes, as has been stated, in the war against the emperor of Germany.

This powerful and intriguing minister having lived to see his designs accomplished, died a few months before 1643. Louis XIII., who bore the name of monarch, while Richelieu exercised the power.

Death of Louis and of Richelieu.

## CHAPTER III.

### SECTION I.

#### ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND.

The history of England at this period is memorable for that struggle between the parliament and the monarch, which convulsed the nation, and spread the ravages of civil war throughout the realm; but which ended in limiting the king's prerogative, and establishing the rights and liberties of the people.

On the death of Elizabeth,\* the crown of England passed from the house of Tudor, in which it had remained since 1603. Henry VIII., to that of Stuart. Her successor, James I. of England, and VI. of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, was great-grandson of Margaret, the eldest sister of Henry VIII. The accession of James was hailed by all classes of the English with enthusiasm. By profession a protestant, and accustomed to the rigid and austere notions of the Scottish church, he was peculiarly acceptable to his protestant subjects, while to the catholics, he was endeared by the remembrance of his mother's claims and injuries. The pride of the Scots too was gratified in giving a monarch to their haughty neighbours, who had for ages been seeking their subjugation.

On the arrival of James in England, his manners, undignified and pedantic, manifesting the love of ease and self-indulgence, soon began to be contrasted with the royal courteousness of those of Elizabeth. His profuse liberality to his Scottish courtiers, (though he left the great offices of the state in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers,) created also some disaffection.

The puritans. The puritans, an order of protestants who regarded the ceremonies and discipline retained in the English church as an approach to popery, had not yet openly separated, expecting that on the accession of James these usages would be abolished; and they petitioned the king accordingly. James, although he had in his youth imbibed their notions, in his mature years feared the republican tendency of their principles. He called a conference at Hampton-court, for the purpose of hearing the argu-

\* The reign of James I. commenced seven years before the death of Henry IV. It was judged best in this, as in some other cases, to admit of some irregularities, rather than to break the thread of the history at an inconvenient place.

ments on both sides, and at its close enjoined the puritans to conform to the established worship. Hence feelings of animosity were kept alive, though they did not during this reign, break out into open hostility.

About two years after the accession of James, that memorable conspiracy was formed, called the "Gunpowder Plot." It was contrived by some of the zealous catholics under the direction of Garnet, the superior of the Jesuits in England. Its purpose was to destroy the king and parliament. The individuals who planned this most inhuman crime, were men of character; but whose minds, misguided by the bigotry of the times, considered the destruction of heretics as commendable. One of their number hired a coal cellar, under the building where the house of lords met, and there deposited thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which was to be exploded on the first day of the meeting of parliament, when the king, queen, and prince of Wales, would be in the house. The secret, which had been in the keeping of at least twenty persons for more than a year, was discovered by means of a letter written to dissuade lord Monteagle, a catholic nobleman, from going to the house on that day. Monteagle communicated the letter to the king, who on the evening previous to the meeting, caused search to be made, when the whole plot was developed. Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, was found in the cellar with a match in his pocket. The other conspirators were also discovered, and all consigned to the punishment which they had merited.

The most politic and commendable measure of James I., was the settlement and civilization of Ireland. He abolished certain customs which supplied the place of laws, and which had kept that island in a state of barbarism and disorder. Among others was the Eric, as it was called, which was a price set upon every man, by the payment of which, his murderer would escape unpunished.

James also encouraged the colonization of America. He issued a charter to the duke of Lenox, marquis of Buckingham, and others, styling them "the grand council of Plymouth, for planting and governing New England in America." It was in this reign, that the puritan fathers of New England made their first settlement on the rocky coast of Plymouth.

The attempts of James to introduce the customs, rites, and discipline of the church of England into Scotland, were met with determined opposition, produced popular tumults, and drew upon him the enmity of that kingdom.

In his latter years, the parliaments of England also assumed a determined tone in regard to the measures of the court. The house of commons remonstrated against the intended marriage of the prince of Wales with a catholic princess. They besought the king to unite with Sweden in the war with Austria and Spain, for the recovery of the palatinate;

1605.

Gunpowder plot.

James promotes the  
civilization of Ire-  
land.

American affairs.

1616.

Scottish affairs.

Parliament begins  
to assert its rights.

Ferdinand V., the elector, being his son in law. James resented this interference of the commons, and following the example of Elizabeth, commanded them not to presume to meddle with any thing that regarded his government. The commons presented still another remonstrance, claiming that they were entitled to interpose in all matters of government, and that freedom of speech in public debate, was their ancient and undoubted right. The king replied that their pretensions were what their ancestors had never, during the weakest reigns, presumed to urge; and insinuated that their privileges were derived from the royal favour. Against this, however, the resolute commons made another protest.

Negotiations for a marriage between the prince of Wales and the infant of Spain, had been commenced, but were broken off through the intrigues of the duke of Buckingham, an unworthy court favourite;\* and a rupture with Spain ensued. An alliance with France and the Low Countries for restraining the power of Austria, which met the entire approbation of parliament, was now formed. A marriage was also concluded between Charles, prince of Wales, and Henrietta, sister of the king of France. As this princess was a catholic, this match, although more acceptable than the Spanish, was by no means agreeable to the nation.

James died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, having filled the throne of England twenty-two years, and that of Scotland almost from his birth.—His unwarlike disposition better suited the interest, than the inclination of his subjects. England, during his reign, was generally prosperous, increasing in wealth and national power.

1625.

Death of James.

## SECTION II.

Charles I., who was twenty-five years of age when he succeeded to the throne, had spent too much of his youth with the dissolute young Buckingham, and was ignorant of the state of the nation. His measures were of course ill calculated to heal divisions, of whose existence he was little aware. His first act was to summon a parliament to obtain the means of paying the debts contracted by the crown during the preceding reign, and to enable him to prosecute the Austrian war. The parliament granted a small sum, inadequate to the wants of the nation.

\* George Villiers created duke of Buckingham by James, and made his chief counsellor, for the wise reasons that he was handsome and of pleasing address. He was like a petted and spoiled child—getting his own way sometimes by whining and coaxing and sometimes by bullying and threatening the indulgent and timid king.

Lord Clarendon gives a lively picture of the manner in which he wrought upon James to sanction a visit which he wished the prince of Wales to make to the infant of Spain, to whom he was betrothed. There Buckingham disgraced his grave young master by his pranks. The Spanish minister said the infant must curb him after she was married. Buckingham opposed the match, broke it off, and then told the parliament lying stories, laying the blame upon the Spaniards.

Their object was, by withholding supplies, to obtain from the monarch some new security for their liberties.

The contest between the prerogative of the king, and the rights of the commons, had now fairly commenced. Charles, inheriting from his father lofty ideas of the monarchical prerogative, and regarding this attempt to circumscribe his authority, as little less than a conspiracy against his throne, dissolved the parliament. To supply his necessities, he resorted to those illegal methods of taxation which had been practised by the Tudors.

Having, by strenuous efforts, succeeded in fitting out a fleet, the command was given to lord Wimbledon, a favourite of the duke of Buckingham. This officer sailed to Spain, mismanaged matters, and returned. Charles was obliged to summon another parliament to obtain supplies. The commons granted the money, and at the same time, requested the king to remove the duke of Buckingham from his counsels. Charles rejected the petition, and again dissolved the parliament.

Though destitute of means, influenced by his unworthy favourite, he continued the Austrian war. He extorted money-gifts from his subjects, under the name of loans and "benevolences," and claimed a legal right to levy taxes for the support of a navy.\*

John Hampden, a resolute patriot, refused to pay his assessment, of twenty shillings. Though the court of exchequer decided against him, giving many reasons for their decision, the people, as Hampden had expected, saw the weakness of the royal pretensions, when tried in the balance of justice, and became more and more determined not to submit to such unreasonable exactions.

A war with France, undertaken at the instigation of Buckingham, was now added to the alarming list of evils. Nothing was left to Charles, hopeless as that measure seemed, but again to summon a parliament. The parliament now assembled, resolved to provide some security for their rights and their liberties, so often violated. They determined to furnish a supply to the king; but before they passed the vote, they appointed a committee, who prepared a bill, declaring the illegality of the said measures of the court, and securing their liberties from future infringement.

1627. This bill, called a "PETITION OF RIGHTS," passed both houses of parliament, and required only the royal assent to become a law. Charles gave it his sanction in the usual form, but with such evident tokens of unwillingness, as made his sincerity distrusted. The supply which had been voted to the king, was eventually granted. Parliament was proceeding still farther to reform abuses, when it was prorogued by the king.

\* Not that Charles had the least idea of using the money collected on this pretence, and called "ship money," for the purpose of improving a navy.

Shortly after this, Buckingham, while preparing with a fleet to go to Rochelle in aid of the French protestants, was assassinated by the deliberate stroke of a religious enthusiast, who rashly thought he should serve God and his country ; thus doing evil that good might come. The expedition to Rochelle failed, and while Charles had expended in preparations for its success, the subsidies granted by parliament, its failure served only to inflame the discontent of his subjects.

The next parliament renewed their claim to the right of regulating the mode of taxation ; they also complained of grievances in matters of religion. Charles, irritated at the continued attempts to limit his prerogative, again determined to dissolve the parliament, but when the speaker of the house of commons was about to rise in order to signify the king's intention, he was forcibly held in the chair, until a remonstrance was drawn up and passed. This open rupture between the king and parliament increased the dissatisfaction of the nation, and involved Charles in still greater perplexities ; yet he continued the same obnoxious measures. He committed to prison and fined the leaders of the parliamentary party, who by this persecution, only acquired an increase of popularity. Charles now resolved to call no more parliaments ; and being unprovided with means for continuing the war with France and Spain, made peace with both these powers.

Meanwhile the mutual hostility of the religious parties became more inveterate. The puritans, now a numerous body, justly complained of the rigorous measures taken by the episcopacy, to enforce conformity with the rules of the established church ; while the church, under the control of the bigoted arch-bishop Laud, increased the causes of their complaint, by introducing new and more offensive ceremonies, and showing a manifest tendency towards the catholic forms and faith.

At this critical juncture, when he should have known that he needed the good will of Scotland, Charles made a journey into that kingdom, with the intention of introducing a conformity to the customs of the English church. This united the whole nation against him. An outcry was raised against popery, and both the clergy and people entered into a bond of union, pledging themselves to resist all religious innovations, and to support each other against all opposition.

This was termed, "the SOLEMN LEAGUE AND COVENANT." The covenanters prepared to maintain their rights by military force. Charles, on his part, raised an army to punish their refractory zeal. As he had to hazard a battle, and sensible of the disinclination of his English troops to the war, he resorted to negotiations. The king would not concede all that the Scots required, and war was renewed. The advantage was now all on the side of the covenanters. During the pacification, Charles had disbanded his army, and though he now again collected a body of troops, he had no means of paying them.

Death of Buckingham.

Contests between the king and parliament.

Religious parties.

1638.

The Scotch "covenantant."



In this dilemma, he was obliged to resort to the humiliating expedient of again calling a parliament. He obtained no aid, and dissolved it.—The army of the covenanters advanced into England. At Newburn upon Tyne, they encountered a detachment of the royal forces under Lord Conway, and defeated them. In

1640.

Parliament called after eleven years intermission.

their march into England, the Scots maintained the most exact discipline, paid for their provisions, and made protestations of loyalty to the king; wishing only to obtain access to the royal person, and the redress of their grievances. Charles was again obliged to make concessions, to obtain a cessation of hostilities.

### SECTION III.

Another English parliament was now called. The earl of Strafford, who from being one of the parliamentary leaders, had become a favourite of the king, was im-

1641.

Strafford condemned and executed.

peached on the charge of high treason; and though illegally condemned, the efforts of Charles to save him were unavailing.

At this time a bloody rebellion broke out in Ireland, and thousands of the protestants were massacred by the catholics.

Irish rebellion.

The commons afforded their king no means of suppressing this rebellion, but continued, in proportion to the number of his concessions, to increase their demands; until at length it became apparent, that the parliamentary leaders were now the oppressors of the king, and intended to subvert the monarchy. During the session of this parliament, called the "long parliament," the commons having presented to the king a severe remonstrance against his arbitrary acts, Charles caused five of the most distinguished members to be impeached for treason, and despatched a sergeant-at-arms to the house, to demand them; he was sent back without any positive answer. The king unwisely proceeded in person, with armed attendants, to the house; but the five members were gone, and the king withdrew. The cry which greeted him as he retired, was not "God save the king;" but murmurs of "privilege—privilege of parliament." Tumults succeeded, and the royal family were obliged to flee from London.

Both parties now raised troops, and prepared to decide the contest by the appeal to arms. Charles raised the royal

1642.

Civil war.

standard at Nottingham. On his side were most of the nobility, and highest rank of gentry, with their dependants; but he was destitute of arms, ammunition, and money. On the side of the parliament, were not only the main body of the military force of London, but most of the great corporations, with the seamen. A battle, not decisive, was fought at Edgehill, in which Charles commanded in person, aided by his nephew, prince Rupert; while his opponents were headed by the earl of Essex. At Lans-

- down, a battle was fought without any decisive result. At Stratton and Roundway Down, the royalists were victorious.

In a skirmish on Calcegrave field, the patriot Hampden, who had been exceedingly influential in parliament, was slain,  
 1643. The royalists made themselves masters of Bristol,  
 Death of Hampden. and laid siege to Gloucester. The parliament commanded their army under Essex to march to the relief of Gloucester. The king was compelled to raise the siege. The armies fought at Newbury. Neither side could claim the victory, but both sustained great loss.

The Scots now united with the parliament, while the Irish despatched succours to the king. At Marston Moor, a bloody  
 1644. battle was fought, and lost by the royalists. Fifty  
 Battle of Marston thousand troops were engaged—a larger force than  
 Moor. was engaged at any other period during this war. The parliamentary commanders were Sir Thomas Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell. The royalists were led by the marquis of Newcastle, and prince Rupert.

At Naseby was fought his last and fatal battle, in which Charles commanded in person, and displayed “the conduct of a prudent general, and the valour of a stout soldier.” After the loss of this battle, he retreated to Wales, but finding himself unable to retrieve his fortunes, he resolved to throw himself on the generosity of the Scots. He arrived at their camp at Newark, and was at first received with marks of respect, but was detained a prisoner, and at length delivered to the English. He was conducted by them to Holdenby,\* in the county of Northampton, where he was detained a prisoner by the parliament, until a change of events took him out of their hands.

Between the opponents of the monarch, there now existed conflicting interests, and hostile feelings. Another religious sect had arisen, who maintained among other opinions, that right of freedom for all, in matters of religion, which at this day is so extensively acknowledged.

These were the independents, at the head of whom  
 Oliver Cromwell. was Oliver Cromwell. They were opposed not only to the king and prelacy, but also to the presbytery. This party professed the desire of establishing a republican form of government. Cromwell, by his real, or pretended zeal, for religion and liberty, had gained the entire confidence of the army. He now sought to obtain

\* Clarendon relates in a touching manner, the great satisfaction which the king felt that his children were permitted to come and spend a day with him. These were his younger children. His oldest son was with his mother in France—learning of her doubtless some lessons in dissoluteness and double-dealing, which he afterwards practised.

1647.

Cornet Joyce seizes  
the king.

possession of the king's person, and privately despatched a party of five hundred horse, under cornet Joyce,\* who seized him at Holdenby, and conducted him to the army. Cromwell now marched

at the head of the army to London, where he gave laws to the parliament, which had become extremely unpopular with the nation. At the same time, he paid great court to Charles, whom the hostilities of these two parties seemed to bring again into some consequence. Cromwell and his adherents established him at Hampton court, where he lived for some time with the appearance of freedom.

The situation of the king, however, soon became unpleasant. The visits of his friends were denied, and angry menaces were thrown out by the people, against him. Charles at length made his escape from the palace, and remained awhile concealed at Litchfield; but was soon compelled to place himself in the keeping of Hammond, the governor of the isle of Wight. He was here detained a close prisoner,

1649.

Trial and execution  
of Charles I.

until at length the party of Cromwell having the complete ascendant, the king was brought to a public trial for treason, on the ground of levying war against the parliament, illegally condemned, and unjustly executed.

## CHAPTER IV.

### SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

Philip III., who succeeded Philip II. on the throne of Spain, was a prince of little ambition, and governed by his minister and the priests. After the peace which he concluded at the Hague, with the revolted provinces of the Netherlands, he turned his attention to the extirpation of heresy in Spain. The Moriscoes, descendants of the ancient Moors, were ordered to leave the

1611.

Moors expelled.

realm within thirty days, under penalty of death. They resisted the cruel decree, and vainly attempted to establish an independent kingdom. They were, however, banished; and thus Spain, deprived of nearly a million of industrious inhabitants, suffered a diminution of national strength, greater than any foreign enemy had ever caused.

The succeeding monarch, Philip IV., became more closely united with the other branch of the house of Austria. Philip and his ambitious minister, Olivarez, at the expira-

Philip IV.

\* The cornet, who had formerly been a taylor, came into the king's presence armed with pistols. You must, said he, go immediately along with me. "Whither?" asked the king. "To the army." By what warrant, demanded Charles. Joyce pointed to his soldiers, tall, handsome, and well armed. Your warrant, said the king, is in fair characters, and legible.

tion of the truce, renewed the attempt to bring the Netherlands into subjection to the crown. But Spain, now on the decline, was

1643.  
Spanish empire declining.

at last obliged to acknowledge in full, the independence of the United Provinces. In Italy, her affairs were going to ruin, and she had a war with France upon her hands.

PORTUGAL, during this reign, took up arms for the recovery of her independence ; and placed the duke of Braganza, whose title was superior to that of the king of Spain, upon the throne, under the name of John IV. All the Portuguese settlements in Asia, Africa, and the islands, expelled their Spanish governors. The Catalans also revolted, and placed themselves under the direction of France ; but after

1648.

some years of war, they were reduced to submission. The peace of Westphalia did not terminate the war between Spain and France.

## PERIOD IV.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Peace of Westphalia } THIRD EPOCH, 1648 A. D. } and the execution  
of Charles I.

TO THE

Treaty of Utrecht,  
closing the war } FOURTH EPOCH, 1713 A. D. } of the Spanish  
succession.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### FRANCE.

THE peace of Westphalia left the conflicting claims of France and Spain unsettled, and the war between those two powers still continued. Louis XIV. being a minor, the reins of government were held by his mother, Anne of Austria, who was guided entirely by the counsels of cardinal Mazarin, the successor of Richelieu. Paris was filled with seditious spirits, and the intrigues of the capital soon plunged the nation in civil war. \*The parliament of Paris, insti-

1648.  
Parliament of Paris  
make claims.  
gated by the cardinal de Retz, who thought himself more fit than Mazarin to govern France, and perhaps also somewhat roused by the example of their English neighbours; claimed the authority of examining, and refusing to pass, the edicts of the crown. Many of the discontented nobility, and the citizens of Paris, supported the parliament in its opposition to the measures of Mazarin. This minister, in want of money to support the war with Spain, ordered a fine to be levied upon the new buildings in the suburbs of Paris, grounding his right upon an old act which forbade the creation of buildings in these places. The parliament prohibited the levy, and the minister was obliged to desist. Other occasions of discord arose, until Mazarin arrested and committed to prison the president and five of the most factious members.

\* This parliament was a judicial, not a legislative body. No meeting of the national assembly was held from the regency of Mary de Medici, till the reign of Louis XVI.

The mob of Paris, joined by many of the most respectable citizens, proceeded on the following day to barricade the streets, the whole populace rose in arms, and the court was forced to yield. The prisoners being delivered up, all outrages ceased, and the city returned to order. The queen regent, however, did not consider the seditious capital a place of safety; and with the young king and Mazarin she retired to St. Germain.

1649.  
Insurrection at  
Paris.

This insurrection received the name of the *Fronde*. Some of those who commenced it being armed with slings, the wits of the court contemptuously applied to the insurgents the epithet of "frondeurs," or "slingers." The wars of the Fronde continued five years. Constant intrigues and change of parties perplex their history, and sometimes give it even a ludicrous air. The generals who figured most in these wars were Condé and Turenne. Towards their close a battle was fought at Paris near the suburb St. Antoine, between Condé, who had brought troops from Spain, and the royal forces under the command of Turenne, which was at last decided in favour of Condé, by the intrepidity of Mademoiselle Montpensier, daughter of the duke of Orleans.\*

1651.

Wars of the Fronde.

After five years of civil war, the French nation, without having advanced one step towards freedom, again humbly submitted themselves to the royal authority. Louis XIV., though young, assumed the government, entered Paris triumphant, and was welcomed by the acclamations of his people. Condé repaired to Spain. No clamours for the assembling of the states were heard, and Louis directed his parliament to presume no more to interfere with state affairs. After this period, the French monarch exercised unlimited power.

Louis XIV.

During the wars of the Fronde, the Spanish war languished, but now under the conduct of Turenne, was prosecuted with vigour. Condé, who commanded the Spanish armies, undertook the siege of Arras, but was repulsed by the French, compelled to raise the siege and retreat. The successes of the hostile nations were nearly equal, until Mazarin obtained for Louis the alliance of Cromwell, who now governed the commonwealth of England. In consequence of this treaty, 6,000 English joined the French army in Flanders. Dunkirk fell before their united strength, and was assigned to the English.

1658.

French and English take Dunkirk.

Spain and France became alike desirous of peace; and the ambassadors of the respective sovereigns met in the isle of Pheasants,

\* She prevailed on the municipal officers to open the gate St. Antoine, and herself directed the firing of the guns of the Bastille, and even with her own hand applied the match. The court party by this means lost the battle. "She has killed her husband," said Mazarin, who knew that she was ambitious to marry some crowned head; and in fact these valorous proceedings of the lady decided Charles II. of England (according to Clarendon) not to offer her his hand.

1659.

Peace of the  
Pyrenees.

in the Pyrenees, and settled its terms. By the "treaty of the Pyrenees," Philip agreed to pardon the Catalans, and Louis the prince of Condé. Louis espoused Maria Theresa, the infanta of Spain, but was required to renounce all claim upon the Spanish monarchy. Mazarin died soon after the conclusion of this treaty, which completed the achievement of those great objects of policy undertaken by Richelieu, and continued by his successor. France was extended in territory, her nobles humbled, and the house of Austria weakened.

## CHAPTER II

## SWEDEN.

Christina, the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, who was seated on the throne of Sweden at the conclusion of the thirty year's war, acquired considerable renown by her attention to literature, and her patronage of men of letters, which drew to her court the learned of other nations. She appears to have been an example to show how fruitless is mere intellectual vigour and cultivation, when not guided by benevolence and piety.

Her literary labours, instead of qualifying her to fill with usefulness and honour the station in which Providence had placed her, wrought in her a distaste to the cares of royalty, and the mere selfish wish of enjoying undisturbed her own propensities. Resigning her crown to Charles Gustavus, who ascended the throne of Sweden under the name of Charles X., she repaired to Rome; and that she might enjoy the charms of Italian society there,

1654.

Christina resigns  
her crown to  
Charles X.

she renounced the protestant faith, in which she had been educated, that the imputation of being a heretic need not interfere with her pleasures. In her visits to Paris, her dissolute and licentious life shocked even the French court; and the cruelties exercised upon her attendants, excited universal abhorrence.

Charles X. of Sweden made the conquest of Poland, and compelled Casimir, the reigning king, to flee to Silesia.

1657.

Charles X. makes  
war upon Poland  
and Denmark.

The Poles, however, soon revolted from the Swedish yoke, and with the assistance of the Russians, Danes and Germans, expelled the Swedes from their kingdom. Charles now turned his arms against Denmark.

His death, which occurred while he was engaged in the siege of Copenhagen, left the throne of Sweden to his son, then a minor. A

1660.  
Charles XI. treaty of peace was concluded at Oliva in West Prussia, near Dantzic, by which the Danish and Polish monarch each made some sacrifices to Sweden; and Casimir, the Polish king, was restored to his throne.

## CHAPTER III.

### ENGLAND.

#### SECTION I.

After the execution of Charles I., the commons passed an act, abolishing kingly power as useless, burdensome and dangerous. They also abolished the house of Lords, and committed the great seal (the form and inscription of which they changed,) to a certain number of persons, who were styled "the Conservators of the liberties of England."

Kingly power  
abolished.

An army of 50,000 men was under the command of Cromwell, who at this period supported the measures of parliament.

Cromwell, who was appointed by the parliament lord lieutenant of Ireland, at the head of an army, entered the island where the earl of Ormond, an adherent of Charles I., was still in arms. Cromwell reduced the Irish to submission, and established the authority of parliament.

1650.

Cromwell subdues  
Ireland.

Meanwhile the Scottish covenanters, though little attached to the royal family, resolved to support the monarchy, and proclaimed Charles II. king of Scotland. Charles, who had sought refuge in Holland, embarked for Scotland. On his arrival, and before he landed, he signed the covenant. Parliament recalled Cromwell from Ireland, made him captain-general of all their forces, and sent him against the Scots. He defeated them at the battle of Dunbar, and made himself master of Edinburgh and Leith.

In the meantime, the Scots, though weakened by divisions among themselves, and jealous of the prince they supported, had assembled an army, with which Charles entered England. Cromwell followed, attacked, and defeated the royal troops at Worcester, and Charles was obliged to flee. After more than a month's concealment in different places,\*

1651.

Battle of Worcester.

\* At one time, he concealed himself among the thick branches of an oak tree. While the persons in pursuit of him, passed underneath, he heard them express their desire of seizing and delivering him to his father's murderers. At another time he rode two or three days journey, carrying Mrs. Lane, the wife of one of his adherents, on a pillow behind him. She told her cousins, where she stopped at night, that the young man was one of her neighbours—that he was out of health, and begged they would send him directly to bed. In this way she kept him out of sight.



and under different disguises, he effected his escape to the continent. The battle of Worcester ruined, for the time, the royal cause. The authority of the commonwealth was now acknowledged throughout the whole extent of the English possessions; and foreign powers were made sensible of the great strength of the nation. Cromwell, who had continued at the head of the army, now established himself in the sovereignty. The parliament, distrustful of him, urged a reduction of the land-forces. Cromwell, by means of the army which was obsequious to his will, dissolved the parliament, and thus, while the name of liberty was upon his lips, he became a military tyrant.

By a council of his officers, he was appointed "Protector of the Commonwealth," and addressed by the title of "highness."

1653.

Cromwell Protector.

Jealousies now arose between England and Holland, and a naval war ensued. After several undecisive engagements, the English fleet under admiral Blake, engaged the Dutch under Van Tromp, and De Ruyter, off Portland.

War with the Dutch.

The battle was fought with the utmost obstinacy for two days. On the third, the Dutch were forced to yield. After this destructive battle, they sued for peace.

England, under the energetic government of Cromwell, rose to an importance among the nations of Europe, which had been unknown since the days of Elizabeth. The Spaniards and French, the Venetians and Swiss, courted the alliance of the protector. He formed connexions with France, and engaged in the Spanish war. Besides the forces sent to the continent in aid of France, a naval armament was despatched to the West Indies; and Jamaica, one of the Spanish islands, was conquered and retained by the English.

Conspiracies were formed against the protector, but by his activity they were disconcerted. His domestic government, though perhaps as mild and equitable as his situation would permit, was yet rigorous; and he was guilty of some acts of tyranny and injustice, on which

1657.

Death of Cromwell.

Charles had never dared to venture. Cromwell died five years after he obtained the protectorate, and was succeeded by his son Richard, whose mild

1659.

Richard Cromwell.

and unambitious disposition, so unlike that of his father, took alarm at the turbulence and cabals that surrounded him. He resigned the protectorate, and retiring to his estate in the country, lived unmolested and unoffending.

The nation was now divided into many parties and sects; but multitudes of the people had become weary of bustle and change, and desired in their hearts the revival of the monarchy.

General Monk, an officer of Cromwell, who had the supreme command in Scotland, marched his army into Eng-

1660.

General Monk restores Charles II.

land, and advanced to London, where he proceeded to execute the plan he had formed for restoring Charles II. to the throne. Disguising his designs under the appearance of zeal for the commonwealth, he procured the dissolution of the parliament then in session, and the assembling of a new one; and succeeded in securing the election of friends of

the monarchy as members of the new parliament. On its assembling, a messenger, bearing a letter from Charles, was introduced. The prince offered a general pardon, promised liberty of conscience—assured the soldiers of their arrears, and submitted all grants to parliamentary arbitration. The house of peers now took their share in the government, and both houses attending, Charles II. was proclaimed king.

He sailed from the Hague, was met at Dover by general Monk, conducted thence to London, and his return was hailed with joy by the nation.

## SECTION II.

Charles thus restored to his throne, every thing conspired to promise a popular and prosperous reign. But the character of the monarch soon blighted the hopes of the nation, and proved that even the school of adversity does not always teach wisdom. His agreeable person, and easy, engaging manners, made him liked by all who approached him; even by those whose judgments most strongly disapproved the unblushing profligacy of his life; and thus his vicious example became particularly dangerous to his subjects; and licentiousness spread from the court to the extremes of the kingdom.

Charles' first measures were mild and popular; but his people soon found that his engagements weighed little, wherever he deemed it his interest to violate them. To favour episcopacy, he passed an act requiring uniformity in religion. This gave offence to the dissenting clergy, and two thousand of them in one day relinquished their cures. Prosecutions were commenced against those concerned in the death of his father. Some were executed, and some fled to foreign kingdoms. Three of the judges, Goff, Whalley and Dixwell, concealed themselves in New England. Fears of popery were increased, by the marriage of the king with Catharine of Portugal, a catholic princess. But the amiable character and manners of the queen gave general satisfaction. Indeed it was soon ascertained that the king was influenced more in his choice by the rich dower of the queen, than by any other consideration. He treated her at first with coldness, then with insult, and finally with neglect.\* Charles was unfortunate as well as faithless in his foreign relations.

He engaged in hostilities with the Dutch on false pretences, hoping by means of involving himself in a popular war, to obtain money from parliament, and regain the good will of his subjects, whose jealousies were

\* The king compelled her to receive with honour in open court, his profligate mistress. She sunk overcome with anguish, and was carried from his presence in a state of insensibility. But while she continued to endure the frowns and displeasure of her royal husband and his profligate court, she was sustained by the sympathy and affection of a generous nation.

aroused by the interference of the Dutch in their foreign trade. He wished also to restore to his nephew, William III., the dignity of Stadtholder, which had formerly belonged to the family of Orange, but had been recently abolished by the Dutch. That industrious people lost no time in preparing for the war. John De Witt, who was at the head of the republican party, had before entered into an alliance with France. The English despatched squadrons to Africa and America, and in both, they took possession of the Dutch settlements.

A naval engagement took place off the coast of Holland, between the Dutch fleet, under the command of the admiral Opdam, and the English, under the duke of York, which ended in the defeat of the Dutch. Louis XIV. now sent out a fleet to aid them. The king of Denmark, also, jealous of the naval power of England, came forward to their assistance. In the following year, a sea fight took place off Dunkirk, the English being commanded by Monk, (now duke of Albermarle,) and prince Rupert; and the Dutch, by De Ruyter, and the younger Van Tromp. It lasted four days with alternate success, when at length the arrival of another English squadron, compelled the Dutch to retire.

1666.

Naval battle off  
Dunkirk.

1665.

Plague in London.

A terrible fire burned for three days, and consumed thirteen thousand buildings. Charles, though generally selfish, on these occasions, showed a fatherly solicitude for his subjects. This was particularly the case, in the activity he manifested in extinguishing the fire, and providing for the suffering population, who were exposed unsheltered to the elements.

1666.

Great fire in London.

The situation of his kingdom, now rendered Charles not less anxious for peace than the Dutch; and negotiations were accordingly commenced. Still, De Witt would not agree to a cessation of hostilities, and sent a fleet to the coast of England, under admiral De Ruyter. This fleet entered the Thames; a part of the squadron advanced to Chatham, and burned several British ships of war.

1667.

Peace of Breda.

Shortly after this, a treaty of peace was signed at Breda, and hostilities ceased. England retained possession of New York, and ceded to the Dutch, Surinam. This treaty by no means restored the popularity of Charles, the nation attributing to his prodigality and avarice, the necessity of concluding the war without obtaining more favourable terms.

## CHAPTER IV.

## SECTION I.

## EUROPE DURING THE WARS OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

While England and the United Provinces had been weakening each other by mutual hostilities, Louis XIV. was maturing plans for the aggrandizement of the French monarchy. The death of Philip IV.,

1665. Charles II., a sickly infant; and the regency was committed to the queen-mother, a woman of weak character. Notwithstanding the renunciation of

Ambitious projects  
of Louis XIV.

Louis on his marriage, he now brought forward claims to some of the Spanish possessions, in right of his queen, Maria Theresa, and to enforce them, entered the Spanish Netherlands at the head of 40,000 troops. The Spaniards were unprepared for the invasion, and town after town fell before the French. The rapid successes of Louis alarmed the other powers, who saw that unless some more efficient resistance was made, another campaign would give him possession of all the Low Countries. The English, Dutch and Swedes, united against him in a league, called "the Triple Alliance." Louis was

now willing to negotiate; and at Aix-la-Chapelle the ambassadors of the different nations met, and formed a treaty of peace, which left to the French monarch the conquests he had made, but compelled

1668.

Peace of Aix-la-  
Chapelle.

him to relinquish all other claims upon the Spanish provinces.

Louis, however, determined to take a future occasion to revenge himself upon Holland for the share she had taken in obstructing his ambitious views, and also sought to detach England from the triple alliance. The wants and weakness of Charles, led him to the shameful measure of a secret treaty, by which he agreed to

Shameful treaty of  
Charles II. with  
Louis XIV.

assist the king of France in the conquest of the United Provinces, and the Low Countries; to embrace publicly the catholic faith, and to establish it in his kingdom. In reward of these services, he

was to receive from Louis the sum of 200,000 pounds, besides an annual subsidy; and in case of rebellion in England, a military force.

While the Dutch were flattering themselves with the hope of a long peace, Louis, at the head of an army, invaded and conquered the duchy of Lorraine, in order to furnish himself with an easy passage into the United Provinces. He had found measures to detach Sweden, as well as England, from the triple alliance; and to bring some of the German nobles into the French interest. This extensive confederacy, and the formidable military and naval preparations, threatened the entire overthrow of the republic. Charles, still keeping the treaty he had formed, a secret, obtained from his parliament

the largest supply the commons had ever granted to a king, in order to enable him to sustain the engagements under which the triple alliance placed him. He then ordered an attack upon a Dutch fleet from Smyrna, valued at two millions sterling, and shortly after, on frivolous pretexts, declared war against Holland. The combined English and French fleets amounted to more than a hundred sail, while the army collected by Louis numbered an hundred and twenty thousand troops, commanded by the ablest generals of the age.

The Dutch, relying on the faith of treaties, were unprepared with an efficient military force. The strength of the republic was also weakened by dissensions among themselves. William, prince of Orange, was appointed commander in chief of the army. De Witt, whose authority was now declining, sought to recover it, and to inspire the states to some great naval operation. He equipped a fleet, which, under admiral De Ruyter, came up with the united fleets of the English and French, as they lay at anchor in Solebay. De Ruyter attacked it, but obtaining no decisive advantage, he retreated to the coast of Holland, whither he was pursued by the English admiral.

Meanwhile the French king, assisted in his command by Marechal Turenne, moved northward at the head of a large army, and reached the Rhine almost without opposition; took Nim-  
 1672.  
 French conquer the Dutch. eguen, Arnheim, and invested Utrecht. The prince of Orange, with his small army, retreated before him; and in a few weeks, all the provinces except Holland and Zealand, had submitted to the conqueror.

This crisis roused the citizens of Amsterdam, and of the whole province of Holland, and every hand was nerved.  
 Dutch patriotism. The populace were taken into pay. They stationed ships in the harbour, and consigned their fertile fields and flourishing villages to destruction, by opening the sluices of their canals, and inundating the country to save the city. Yet while they prepared to resist, they sought for peace, but their overtures were rejected; and the resolute Dutch determined to leave their native land, if they could not defend it, and settle in India or America.

In the frenzy of the times, the people, feeling the necessity of an acknowledged sovereign, and accusing the two De  
 The two De Witts killed. Witts, by whose influence the office of stadtholder had been abolished, now rose in fury, imprisoned and put them to death, and again declared the prince of Orange stadtholder.

The united fleet of the confederates about this time advanced towards the coast of Holland, having on board the army which was designed to complete its conquest. The Dutch thanked an overruling Providence when it was carried back to sea, and prevented by severe storms from landing the army.

The emperor of Germany, the king of Spain and the elector of Brandenburg, now awoke to the grasping ambition of Louis, and were ready to lend the States their aid. The prince of Orange

1673.

Dutch successes.

retook Naerden, and joining his forces with those of the emperor under Montecuculi, they besieged and took Bonne, and subduing the principal part of the electorate of Cologne, interrupted the communication between France and the United provinces. The French were now compelled to evacuate their conquests and retreat. The emperor and the king of Spain publicly signed a treaty with the States, Spain declared war against France, and the following year the parliament of England compelled Charles II. to abandon the French alliance, and make peace with Holland.

The efforts of the French monarch to sustain the war were unremitting. He brought, this year, four armies into

1674.

French again successful.

the field, and commenced the campaign by marching a person into Franche Compté, and subduing the whole province. Condé, at the head of another army, encountered the prince of Orange at Seneffe in Brabant, and a bloody battle ensued, where twenty thousand were left dead on the field, without any decisive victory. On the side of Germany, the French were successful. Turenne, who commanded, made himself master of the palatinate, but sullied his reputation by the cruelties which he there sanctioned. Louis, however, began to desire peace, and to fear the result of the combination against him. He bribed the king of England to prorogue his parliament, lest it should compel him to unite in the confederacy.

The fortunes of France in the next campaign were less prosperous. Near the Rhine, the imperial general, Montecuculi was, opposed to Turenne, and by his skill prevented the progress of the French. The death of Turenne, who was killed by a canon ball while reconnoitering the enemy, proved an irreparable misfortune to Louis. The superiority of the French arms ceased in this quarter, and the remainder of the war is marked by few memorable events. On the ocean, the French were victorious chiefly through the skill of Du Quesne, who yet held but an inferior rank in the navy. Several battles were fought, in one of which De Ruyter, the famous Dutch admiral, was killed.

Negotiations for peace were entered into at Nimeguen, in 1678, the Dutch retaining their former territories.

## CHAPTER V.

## HOLLAND, FRANCE, GERMANY, SPAIN.

The emperor Leopold of Germany was at this time harassed by a rebellion of the Hungarians, which was rendered still more alarming by their union with the Turks. Mahomet IV., then on the Ottoman throne, invaded the empire with the most formidable force which the Turks had ever sent against Christendom. The Turkish army, under the grand vizier, entered Germany and laid

Turks aid the rebellious Hungarians.

siege to Vienna. The suburbs were destroyed, and nothing less than the surrender of the city was expected, when John Sobieski, king of Poland, whose alliance the emperor had obtained, joined by several of the German princes, arrived before the Turkish camp. A slight battle ended in the precipitate flight of the Turks, and the relief of the distressed city. Among the spoils of the Turkish camp was found the celebrated standard of Mahomet, which was presented by the captors to the pope. In other battles, the Turks and Hungarians were unsuccessful, and Hungary was restored to the empire.

Louis XIV., having raised the navy of France to a degree of consequence unknown before his reign, various ports

Louis XIV.

were constructed at great expense. His squadrons commanded the Mediterranean, and in some measure stopped the depredations of the Barbary pirates. He caused Algiers to be bombarded, and obliged the Algerines to release their Christian captives. Louis also in resentment towards the Genoese, who had assisted the Spaniards, ordered their city bombarded, and compelled the doge to implore his clemency at Versailles. This was a palace which he had erected at enormous cost, and where he kept his court with a degree of expense and splendour probably not equalled even to this time by any other monarch.

At this period, he lost his great minister, Colbert, who by his patronage of manufactures and commerce, and his skill in managing the revenue of the kingdom, had enabled his monarch to maintain such expensive wars, and erect such magnificent edifices.

Death of Colbert.

Colbert had protected and patronized the huguenots; Louis was

1685.

Louis persecutes the protestants and revokes the Edict of Nantes.

himself a bigot, and was now encouraged by Louvois, the successor of Colbert, to commence a religious persecution, in the course of which, he revoked the edict of Nantes, passed by Henry IV. The protestants were ordered to be converted by a day appointed. Of those who continued refractory, the leaders were broken on the wheel, while the common people were hanged. The penalty of death was also enacted against all who attempted to emigrate—yet, notwithstanding, fifty thousand families abandoned

their country. Louis thus stained his character, and greatly injured France ; for by means of these emigrations, the French skill in manufactures was carried to other countries, while a great amount of wealth and industry was lost to their own. From this period, the power of Louis began to decline. The French protestants carried with them a hatred to their king, which they infused into the hearts of their brethren in the neighbouring kingdoms. A league of the princes belonging to the German empire, was formed at Augsburg, for preventing the further encroachments of France ; and with them, Holland, Spain, and finally England, united.

1684.

League against  
France.

Louis exerted the utmost vigour in preparing to withstand his numerous and powerful enemies. The French were first in the field. The dauphin led an army to the Rhine, and laid siege to Philipsburg, which fell before his arms. The French overruled the palatinate, where by order of the king they destroyed the great towns, and spread desolation through the country. This barbarous warfare served only to render the enemies of France more inveterate. This campaign was unsuccessful to the French, although the number of troops in their armies was 40,000.

The following year Louis despatched an army into Italy, under Catinat, which was victorious over the forces of the duke of Savoy at Saluces. Luxembourg obtained a victory over the Dutch and Spanish on the plains of Fleurus. The naval operations of France were also prosperous. Admiral Tourville defeated the combined squadrons of the English and Dutch, off Beachy head, and even made a descent upon the coast of England.

In the succeeding campaign, William, prince of Orange, now king of England, who at the commencement of the war was engaged in settling the affairs of that realm, resumed the command in Flanders. Louis took Mons ; and the French arms were successful on the side of Spain ; yet this year, no decisive advantages were obtained by either side.

1691.

The following spring, Louis besieged and took Namur, while Luxembourg was stationed so as to prevent the king of England from bringing relief to the besieged town. But at sea, the French, under the command of Tourville, were defeated off Cape La Hogue by the English ; and at Steinkirk, William attacked and defeated their army. At Widdin, the prince of Baden, who commanded the imperial forces, obtained a complete victory over the Turks, with whom the French king was now in alliance.

1693.

Battle of Widdin.

The following year, however, a new vizier, of more military skill, changed the face of affairs. During the absence of the prince of Baden, who was settling disturbances in Transylvania, the Turks retook Widdin and made themselves masters of Belgrade, and of all Upper Hungary.

1694.

Turks take Bel-  
grade.



Meanwhile the French general, Luxembourg, surprised king William, who with his army occupied the village of Neerwinden.

**Battle of Neerwinden.** The conflict here was long and obstinate, and though victory at length declared for the French, it was dearly bought. Luxembourg lost 8,000 of his best troops, which so weakened his army, that he was unable to follow up the victory. He afterwards took Charleroi. In Spain, the marechal de Noailles, and in Piedmont, Catinat, prosecuted the war with success. At sea, also, Tourville retrieved the disasters of the preceding year, and obtained considerable advantages over a squadron under Sir George Rooke.

The war continued through three more campaigns, during which, with the exception of the conquest of Namur, by king William, no event of consequence took place. The parties were at length desirous of peace, and a congress under the mediation of Charles XI., king of Sweden, assembled at Ryswick to settle the terms. France acknowledged William king of England.

**1697.**  
**Peace of Ryswick.**

Soon after the treaty of Ryswick, a battle took place at Zenta, between the imperial forces under prince Eugene of Savoy, and the Turks, under the command of the sultan Mustapha II., in which prince Eugene obtained a decisive victory. Twenty thousand Turks were left dead on the field, besides great numbers who were drowned in attempting to escape. The pavilion of the sultan, the great seal of the empire, and the immense stores of the army, fell into the hands of the victors. This event produced a peace between the German and Ottoman empires, which was signed at Carlowitz, and which restored tranquillity to Europe.

**1699.**  
**Peace of Carlowitz.**

## CHAPTER VI.

### ENGLAND.

Charles II. continued his unpopular measures, among which was the sale of Dunkirk to the French, for the sum of

**1668.**  
**Charles II. sells**  
**Dunkirk.**

400,000 pounds. The duke of York declared himself a convert to the catholic religion, and the evident prepossessions of the monarch to the same faith, awakened anew the fears of popery. Charles, though he often offended his subjects, yet by his insinuating manners and scheming brain, could ever find ways to recover their favour. He proposed for this object, a marriage between the princess Mary, eldest daughter of his brother James, and William, prince of Orange, which, in spite of the remonstrances of James, he carried into effect.

On another occasion he obliged his brother, who was much disliked by the people, to retire to Brussels.

Great disorders arose in Scotland, in consequence of the arbitrary measures of the English ministry, in the establishment of episcopacy in that kingdom. The covenanters rose in arms.

1679.

Battle of Bothwell  
bridge.

The duke of Monmouth was sent to reduce them to order, and he defeated them in an irregular battle at Bothwell bridge. But behaving with great lenity to the prisoners, he was recalled in disgrace, and the duke of York, who had returned, was sent by his brother to administer the government of Scotland. He cruelly persecuted the covenanters, seeming to enjoy their sufferings. The court party, during the last years of Charles, gathered strength, and tyrannical principles were advanced, and gained ground. A conspiracy was formed for opposing the succession of the duke of York, and for raising an insurrection to effect this purpose. Among the conspirators were lord Russell,

1681.

Rapert and Sidney  
executed.

Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandson of the great parliamentary leader,—men who had the good of their country at heart. The plot was detected. Russell and Sidney were executed, and Hampden imprisoned.

Another conspiracy called the Rye-house plot was formed among a low class of persons. The discovery of this conspiracy, which aimed at the assassination of Charles, led to the detection of the other, though they were perfectly distinct in their design, and composed of different members.

Rye-house plot.

1685.

Death of Charles II.

James II.

Charles died suddenly, at a time when his conscience having reproached him with his tyrannical abuse of power, he designed a change of measures. James II. was made king. Assembling his council, he declared his determination to maintain the established government both in church and state. But his conduct in sending to make submissions to the pope—going in state to high mass, which by act of parliament was an illegal assembly—levying taxes without consent of parliament—and advancing catholics to office, while he displaced episcopalians, soon convinced the people of the hollowness of his professions.

Insurrections broke out, one in Scotland, headed by the duke of Argyle, and another in England, headed by the duke of Monmouth. These were suppressed, and the forces collected, defeated and scattered. But these successes, instead of consolidating the power of the king, in consequence of the bad measures which followed, undermined his throne. Military executions of those taken prisoners, were frequent, and sometimes attended with circumstances of horrid cruelty.\* Jeffries, who was chancellor of the kingdom, received

\* After the battle of Sedgemoor, in which Monmouth was defeated, lord Feversham, who commanded against him, ordered above twenty of the prisoners to be hanged without form of trial. Col. Kirk did the same at Bridgewater, and when he saw their feet twitching, as they were struggling in death, he ordered the band to play a lively tune, saying, "I will give them music to their dancing."

from James a special commission to try the rebels ; and to be tried by this cruel and unjust judge, was to be condemned and executed.

By upholding such cruelties, the monarch made himself hated by his people. To the clergy of the established church, he became particularly obnoxious. He not only deprived them of privileges formerly granted them, but grossly insulted them as a body, by directing them to read in public his declaration of equal indulgence to all religions ; a paper which contained matters contrary to their legal claims and declared opinions. The arch-bishop of Canterbury, and six bishops, met and drew up a petition that the king would not oblige them to promulgate that which by former acts of parliament was illegal. James not only refused to grant the petition, but committed the bishops to the tower, and prosecuted them for a libel.

The whole of the community (except a few office holders,) now felt that the measure of tyranny and oppression was full, and that such a government could no longer be endured. The nation was roused to resistance. Many of the most considerable persons, both in church and state, made secret applications to the prince of Orange, who had married Mary, eldest daughter of James.

1688.

William, prince of  
Orange.

The tories and whigs\* united in requesting him to undertake the defence of the nation ; a proposal highly acceptable to William, who had ever kept his eye upon the English throne. He sailed with a fleet for England, and landed his army at Torbay without opposition. The whole nation was in commotion, and soon the accessions to his party were so numerous and rapid, that it seemed as if the whole realm were in the conspiracy. The army and the navy deserted to him. James, perceiving no chance of success in a war, and fearing the consequences of resistance, sent the queen and prince of Wales to France. He followed them himself, about the time that William advanced to London.

A convention was summoned, and a vote passed, declaring James to have broken the original contract between king and people ; and that, withdrawing from the kingdom, he had left the throne vacant. James was now dethroned, but William was not king ; and in the arrangement of this affair, that prince showed the soundness of his judgment. At first, the convention thought of making Mary the sovereign, and William, regent ; but he sent them word that he would not accept of a power which depended on the life of another, and if they concluded on this plan, he would render them no assistance. Mary seconded his views, and the prince and princess of Orange were jointly declared king and queen of England. This revolution is one of the most singular in history. It was accomplished almost without the effusion of blood ; and in its course the principle was acknowledged that the people had by their representatives a right to elect the sovereign. The contest between the king and

\* These terms were first used in the reign of Charles II.—the tory party being those who maintained the prerogative of the crown,—and the whig, those who maintained the rights of the people.

parliament, which began with the Stuarts, ended with them; and royal prerogative became thenceforth circumscribed.

Although William and Mary ascended the throne of England without the effusion of blood, sometime was required to settle the affairs of Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland, James retained a powerful party headed by lord Dundee. At Killiecrankie this brave and popular chieftain gave battle to the forces of William, and obtained a victory, but fatally for the cause of James, he fell in the engagement.

James, on his flight from England, had been hospitably received by Louis XIV.,\* and having collected a few hundred of his own subjects, and some French officers, he embarked for Ireland. The earl of Tyrconnel, who commanded there, remaining faithful to his interests, had assembled an army of nearly 40,000 men. James was received with enthusiasm, and entered Dublin amidst acclamations. The Irish protestants, however, resisted with intrepidity, though at times reduced to the utmost distress. William, who for a time had been compelled by the disputes which agitated the English parliament, to leave the Irish war to his lieutenants, now proceeded to that kingdom in person. A battle was fought on the banks of the Boyne, in which the monarchs were each at the head of their respective armies. Victory declared in favour of William; James again fled to France, and Ireland soon after submitted to the power of the conqueror.

Though the reign of William was often disturbed by the party which adhered to the Stuarts, yet the majority of the nation supported him in his measures. While he was personally engaged in the continental wars, Mary, whose manners were popular, exercised with ability the office of regent, although when her husband was in England, she was the most submissive of his subjects.

William died at Kensington, by a fall from his horse. This monarch governed with ability, yet not well. Ambition was in his heart, and this was not modified as it should have been, by a regard to the good of mankind, and especially to that of the people whom he governed. Hence he augmented the disturbances on the continent, sent forth his armies to shed the blood of distant, unoffending people, and to maintain these armies, commenced the system of borrowing money, which has in its consequences accumulated the enormous national debt which has brought England to the verge of destruction. To carry his measures, he resorted to that dishonourable and demoralizing plan of bribing the members of parliament and other persons of influence, both at home and abroad. During his reign, an act of settlement was passed, notwithstanding the opposition of the Stuart

1702.

Death of William.

\* The castle of St. Germain in the vicinity of Paris, situated on an eminence commanding a beautiful view of the winding Seine and its fertile meadows, was assigned as his residence. The apartments occupied by James and his family are now shown to the traveller in the condition in which they were when he and his family inhabited them. Most persons of respectability in that country are better accommodated, though not so amply.

party, which secured the crown of England to the duchess dowager of Hanover, grand daughter of James I., and her descendants ; they being protestants.

William was succeeded by Anne, sister of Mary, and second daughter of James II. She continued the alliance with the house of Austria, and it was during her reign that the victories of the duke of Marlborough reflected such lustre on the British arms.

1702.

Anne.

## CHAPTER VII.

### EUROPE FROM THE PEACE OF RYSWICK, 1697, TO THE TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713.

#### SECTION I.

The peace of Ryswick had scarcely composed hostilities between the European powers, when jarring claims and intrigues, concerning the succession to the Spanish crown arose, which eventually produced war. Charles II., the reigning monarch of Spain, had no children ; and the feeble state of his health gave reason to expect the immediate vacancy of that throne. Louis XIV., the emperor Leopold, and the elector of Bavaria, each possessed claims to the succession. The mothers of Louis and Leopold were the daughters of Philip III. of Spain, and these monarchs had each married a daughter of Philip IV. The elector of Bavaria claimed the throne for his son, who was the only surviving child of Leopold and Margaret, the second daughter of Philip.

The balance of power in Europe, seemed to require that neither the house of Austria, nor that of Bourbon, should obtain such an accession of strength, as the acquisition of the Spanish monarchy would give. A treaty of partition was therefore formed by England, France and Holland, dividing the territories of the Spanish monarchy among the different claimants. This treaty, which the framers designed to preserve secret, became known in Spain, and greatly displeased both the king and the nation. Charles immediately made a will, excluding both the house of Bourbon and that of Austria, and bequeathing his crown, with all the Spanish possessions, to the elector of Bavaria. The death of the elector, which occurred soon after, again renewed the intrigues of Louis and Leopold. The king of England continued to interest himself in the negotiations, and a second treaty was formed between England, France and Holland, by which a new partition of the Spanish dominions was made. To this partition also the emperor refused to accede.

The intrigues of the clergy, and the influence of the pope, whom Charles consulted, and who feared for his own territories, in case of a union between Spain and Austria, drew Charles from the Austrian interest, and induced him to make a secret will, in which the duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, was declared his heir. The death of Charles, and the publication of this will, caused a powerful sensation throughout Europe. The desire of aggrandizing his family, at length overcame every other consideration in the mind of Louis. He accepted the will, and conveyed the duke of Anjou, his grand-son, to Madrid, where he was crowned as Philip V.

1700.

Charles II. of Spain  
leaves his crown to  
Philip V. of the  
house of Bourbon.

England and Holland, though highly dissatisfied by the want of faith which Louis had displayed, did not consider it for their interest to engage in war, and reluctantly acknowledged the title of Philip. The emperor of Germany prepared for immediate hostilities, and despatched an army under prince Eugene into Italy, to enforce his claim to Milan. Here, through the treachery of the duke of Savoy, who pretended to be in the French interest, the imperialists obtained repeated advantages, and made themselves masters of the country between the Adige and the Adda.

During this time, England and Holland were attempting to negotiate with France, and produce an amicable adjustment of the Spanish claims. All efforts proving vain, they entered into a treaty with the emperor of Germany, called the "Grand Alliance," whose object was to prevent the union of the French and Spanish monarchies; the procuring for the emperor the Spanish possessions in Italy; the recovery of Flanders as a barrier to Holland, and the security of the English and Dutch commerce.

1701.

The grand alliance.

On the death of James II., which occurred at this time, at St. Germain, Louis acknowledged the title of James (the son of that monarch, commonly called the Pretender) to the throne of England. William at once recalled his ambassador from France, and his subjects seconded with ardour his preparations for war. In the midst of them, William died; but Anne, who succeeded to the English throne,

1702.

The grand alliance  
declare war against  
France.

continued the same measures of foreign policy. England, Holland, and the German empire declared war against France on the same day. The German princes generally, espoused the cause of the emperor. Frederic, the the elector of Brandenburg, had been won by receiving from the emperor the title of the king of Prussia.

During the first campaign, nothing of much consequence occurred. In Italy, and on the Upper Rhine, the French arms were successful; but in Flanders, the allies, commanded by the duke of Marlborough, made themselves masters of several places. Their naval operations, also, were fortunate. A French fleet, which had just arrived in the harbour of Vigo, having in charge an immense treasure which it had brought from America, was attacked by the English and Dutch, the

vessels captured or destroyed, and a great amount of wealth taken. The king of Portugal and the duke of Savoy now openly espoused the interests of the Grand Alliance.

In the second campaign, Louis exerted himself to the utmost. The electors of Bavaria and Cologne, engaged with zeal in his cause. The former carried on the war in Germany, and in union with marechal Villars, the French commander, obtained a victory over the imperialists on the plains of Hochstadt. In Alsace and Italy, also, the French arms were successful. In the Netherlands, the tide of fortune changed, and the arms of Marlborough triumphed, yet the general result of the campaign was favourable to Louis.

## SECTION II.

The following year, Marlborough was early in the field, having his measures planned with care and secrecy.

1704. Wishing to relieve the emperor, whose capital was threatened on the one hand by the Hungarians, who were in a state of revolt; and on the other, by the French and Bavarians, whose successes in the preceding campaign had put them in possession of Augsburg, and opened the road to Vienna,—Marlborough decided to march into Germany. Deceiving the French by a feint, he succeeded in crossing the Rhine, the Maine, and the Neckar. Having united with the imperialists under the prince of Baden, he compelled the elector of Bavaria to retreat from Donawert, which he took. Soon after this, prince Eugene joined his army to that of Marlborough, and a battle was fought between the allies, and the French and Bavarians, near the village of Blenheim.

1704. The hostile armies were nearly equal in strength, each numbering about 80,000 men; but the superior military skill of Marlborough and Eugene, gave them the victory. Near 40,000 French and Bavarians were killed, or made prisoners; and all their stores, artillery, and baggage, became the prey of the victors. Of the allies, 5,000 were killed, and 8,000 wounded. This victory relieved the emperor, and left the allies in possession of the country from the Danube to the Rhine. The conquerors followed up this blow by recrossing the Rhine, and obtained possession of some important places in Alsace. At sea, also, the success of the allies was important. The confederate fleets of the English and Dutch attacked Gibraltar, and the English seamen made themselves masters of that almost impregnable fortress.

The operations of the French, however, were successful in other quarters. In Italy their arms triumphed; and also in Portugal, where the war was conducted by the arch-duke Charles, who had assumed the title of king of Spain.

The ensuing spring, Louis had an army of 70,000 men, under marechal Villars, in readiness to oppose the duke of Marlborough, who was thus prevented from pene-

1705.

trating into France. The most important events of this campaign were transacted in Spain, where the arms of the confederates met with signal success. The principal places in the province of Estremadura were reduced, and nearly the whole kingdom of Valencia, and the province of Catalonia, submitted to the arch-duke.

The death of the emperor Leopold, which occurred this year, placed his son Joseph upon the imperial throne, but did not affect the policy of the court.—In the next campaign, Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch, obtained at Ramilies an important victory over the French, under marechal Villeroy, where the loss of the French was nearly 20,000, while that of the allies was less than 3,000. This victory enabled Marlborough to conquer Brabant, and almost all Spanish Flanders. The duke of Vendome was recalled from Italy to oppose Marlborough and prince Eugene, who had already crossed the Po, and carried on a successful warfare in that quarter. Joining the duke of Savoy, their united armies attacked the French before Turin, and completely routed them. In Spain, also, victory declared for the confederates. Philip was obliged to leave Madrid, which the English and Portuguese entered. Charles, the arch-duke of Austria, was declared king, under the title of Charles III., but did not himself advance to Madrid. Philip collected another army, and recovered his capital.

Louis, now perceiving the distress to which his great expenditures were reducing his kingdom, made proposals of peace to the other powers, which were rejected. The war therefore continued, and Louis, though greatly embarrassed, prepared to carry it on with vigour. Several armies were collected, and reinforcements sent into Spain. In Italy, continued misfortune attended the French and Spaniards; the whole kingdom of Naples was reduced by the allies, and the territory of the duke of Savoy entirely recovered. Here, however, the success of the allies for this campaign, ended. In Flanders, the duke of Vendome prevented Marlborough from performing any thing of importance. In Germany, marechal Villars had obtained considerable success, and penetrated to the Danube. The Hungarians continued to distress the empire, and a formidable enemy from a new quarter threatened it. Charles XII., king of Sweden, at this juncture manifested hostile intentions, but through the influence of the English, desisted from executing them. In Spain, the confederates met with a signal defeat at

Almanza, where they lost nearly 15,000 men. After this, the French and Spaniards recovered the whole kingdom of Valencia for Philip. An attempt of prince Eugene and the duke of Savoy upon Toulon, was successfully repulsed by the French. The advantages of this campaign were mainly on the side of France.



## SECTION III.

During the next year, the English were roused to more vigorous exertions, by an attempt, though unsuccessful, of Louis, to convey the pretender, James III., to Scotland. Marlborough was continued in the command in Flanders. At Oudenarde,

1708.

Battle of Oudenarde.

a battle was fought between the forces under him, and the French army under the duke of Vendome, where again the confederates were victorious. Soon after this, prince Eugene took the city of Lisle, which he had besieged two months. Ghent and Bruges, of which the duke of Vendome had obtained possession in the early part of the campaign, were now recovered by the confederates. At sea, they acquired the command of the Mediterranean, and achieved the conquest of Sardinia and Minorca.

Louis again made liberal proposals of peace, which were again rejected. Not only were his armies unfortunate,

1709.

but his subjects were suffering under a grievous famine, and his finances exhausted. This monarch, by his regal munificence, and his imposing qualities of person and character, was the idol of his subjects, to whom they willingly sacrificed their blood and treasure. By his patronage of literature, he had the talents and genius of France in his interest. Hence, when the rejection of a proffered peace left him no hope but in the successful prosecution of the war, France aroused again to new and extensive preparations. To marechal Villars, he gave the command of his armies in Flanders, where Marlborough and Eugene acted in concert with a force of 100,000 men. The confederates having reduced Tournay, besieged Mons. Villars encamped his army a short distance from that city, where he was attacked by Marlborough and Eugene, and after a fierce and long contested battle, he was compelled to retreat from the field, and abandon Mons to the allies; yet he could hardly be said to have lost the victory, since the number of slain in the army of the confederates, was double that on the side of the French. Villars held them in check, and prevented their entering France, or gaining any other important advantage.

At the close of this campaign, Louis renewed his solicitations for peace, and negotiations to that effect commenced at Gertruydenberg. Louis was willing to make ample concessions; but the demands of the allies were so exorbitant as to preclude all hope of reconciliation, and the negotiations were broken off.

In Flanders, several places of importance surrendered to the allies. In Spain, a battle was fought at Almenara,

1710.

in which the two competitors for the crown, Philip, and the arch-duke Charles, appeared at the head of their respective forces. The contest was decided in favour of Charles, and Philip was again compelled to flee from Madrid, of which Charles took

possession. The Spaniards, however, continued faithful to Philip's cause, and the duke of Vendome, who received the command of the French in that quarter, soon retrieved their affairs, and recovered Madrid for Philip.

About this period, two events took place, calculated to produce a cessation of hostilities. The emperor Joseph dying, his brother, the arch-duke Charles, was raised to the imperial dignity. As it was inconsistent with the avowed object of the Grand Alliance, to permit the throne of two nations to be occupied by one monarch,

1711.

Charles, emperor of Germany.

Charles was now considered as disqualified for the throne of Spain. In addition to this, a change had been effected in the British ministry. The tories had acquired the ascendancy in the court of Anne, and a change of measures might speedily be expected. Marlborough was indeed continued in office, but it was evident that his influence was on the decline.

Though hostilities were carried on in various quarters, the next campaign ended without any thing important. In the latter part of this year, negotiations were entered into between the English and French courts. Marlborough was recalled, and dismissed from his offices.

1712.

Negotiations for peace.

At length conferences were opened at Utrecht, and treaties of peace were signed by all the belligerent powers, except the emperor, and the king of Spain. By the terms of these

1713.

Treaty of Utrecht.

treaties, Philip V. was secured on the throne of Spain, on condition of his renouncing, for himself and his descendants, all claim upon the crown of France. The heirs of the French monarchy were also to renounce all claim upon that of Spain; so that the two kingdoms should in no case be united. Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, in addition to his hereditary dominions. The Italian possessions of Spain and the Netherlands were to be ceded to the house of Austria. The Rhine was to be the established boundary between Germany and France. The country on both sides of the river Amazon in America, was to be given to the king of Portugal. The title of Anne to the throne of England, and the eventual succession of the family of Hanover to that throne, was to be acknowledged by France. Gibraltar and Minorca were to remain in possession of the English. Hudson's bay and straits, the town of Placentia in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia in North America, and the island of St. Christophers in the West Indies, were also to be ceded to that government by France. Luxembourg, Namur, and Charleroy, were given to the United Provinces; and Lisle, Aire, Bethune, and St. Vincent, were restored to France.\*

As the emperor refused his assent to the treaty, the war between the empire and France still continued. Turning all their strength

\* The treaty of Utrecht closed, in America, "Queen Anne's war."

against Germany, the French were now successful in their operations, and the following year, Charles VI. was forced to conclude a peace at Rastadt, on less favourable terms than had been offered him at Utrecht.

1714.

Peace of Rastadt.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### NORTH OF EUROPE.

#### SECTION I.

While the wars of the Spanish succession had desolated the southern countries of Europe, the north had been laid waste by the ambition of Charles XII. of Sweden. He succeeded his father, Charles XI., at the age of fifteen.

1697.

Charles XII. king  
of Sweden.

The throne of RUSSIA, at this time, was occupied by Peter, who though he had faults, yet on the whole, well earned the name of great, by his services to his country. Learning that more perfect forms of society and government existed in the south, and feeling the importance of maritime operations to a great state, the young monarch laid aside his royal dignity, and went to travel in Holland and England, collecting with great industry, such information as might benefit his country; and acquiring the art of ship-building, by labouring with his own hands in the dock-yard. He had now returned, and was engaged in polishing his rude subjects.

1610.

Peter the Great.

DENMARK was under the sway of Frederic IV., and Poland under that of Augustus, elector of Saxony, who had succeeded the famous Sobieski. Both Poland and Denmark were torn with internal dissensions, and Augustus particularly found himself the object of much distrust to his subjects. These three monarchs entered into a league against the young king of Sweden. Peter desired to obtain some of the provinces of Charles, which would give him a port on the eastern side of the Baltic. Augustus wished

1699.

League of Russia,  
Poland and Den-  
mark, against  
Sweden.

to obtain Swedish Livonia. The kings of Denmark had long been in a quarrel with the dukes of Holstein Gottorp, a branch of their family. This quarrel had now become inveterate, and the present duke, having married a sister of Charles XII., and being on terms of great intimacy with that prince, the enmity of Frederic IV. of Denmark was thus roused against Sweden. Thus Charles found himself surrounded by those who had designs against him, and who

thought that his youth gave them a pledge of success. But it was a young lion that they were rousing from his lair.

The war was commenced by the Danes, who invaded the territories of the duke of Holstein Gottorp. Charles supported his brother-in-law with his whole strength, and formed an alliance with England and Holland. He carried the war into Denmark, and besieged

1701.

Charles makes  
peace with the  
Danes.

Copenhagen. The Danish king, reduced to great distress, obtained the mediation of England and France, and a peace was concluded highly honourable to Sweden.

In the meantime, the Russians had commenced hostilities, and laid siege to Narva. Charles now advanced to the defence of that part of his kingdom, and although the Russian army numbered 80,000 men, he with 8,000 attacked their camp, defeated

1701.

Battle of Narva.

them, and relieved Narva. Peter, who was not in the battle, but was at the head of another army of 40,000 men, after learning the result, retired into his own dominions, exclaiming, "I knew that the Swedes would beat us, but in time they will teach us to beat them."

In the meantime, Augustus of Poland had invaded Livonia, and laid siege to Riga. After the victory at Narva, the season was too far advanced to permit Charles to carry his arms against Augustus, but early the ensuing spring he appeared in the field against the Poles and Saxons. The army of Augustus was stationed on the banks of

1702.

Charles victorious  
at Duna.

the Duna, where Charles, after forcing the passage of the river, encountered them, and obtained a complete victory. With rapid strides he marched through Courland and Lithuania. At Birsén, the town in which Peter and Augustus, a few months previously, had planned his destruction, he now formed a project of dethroning the king of Poland. Augustus governed the Poles with the same arbitrary sway he had been accustomed to exercise over his Saxon subjects; and that people, who never willingly bent their necks to the yoke of tyranny, murmured against him in their hearts; and Charles peremptorily declared he would never grant them peace until they chose a new sovereign.

The hostile monarchs met at Glissau, between Warsaw and Cracow, and the heroic Swede, though with but half the number of troops, defeated the king of Poland.

1702.

Battle of Glissau.

Cracow surrendered, but Charles being wounded by a fall from his horse, a few weeks were afforded Augustus to rally his supporters. Charles being now recovered, marched against the remains of the Saxon army which had been defeated at Glissau, dispersed them, and then proceeded to invest Thorn, a city on the Vistula, whither Augustus had retired. Augustus escaped, and fled to Saxony.

Charles then assembled a diet at Warsaw, which, under his influence, deposed Augustus, and elevated Stanislaus Leczinski to the throne of Poland. Augustus received supplies of Russian troops, and he had still adherents in Poland, who joined his standard; but

Charles and Stanislaus obtained repeated victories over separate bands of the Russians, and at length drove them from Poland.

Charles penetrated Saxony, and at Alt Ranstadt he forced Augustus to subscribe to a peace, in which he renounced all claim to the crown of Poland, and acknowledged the title of Stanislaus.

1706.

Charles makes  
peace with  
Augustus.

## SECTION II.

Meanwhile, the penetrating mind of the czar of Russia, had foreseen his own coming contest with the Swede, and he had prepared for it with great prudence, and unremitted industry. He had improved the discipline of his armies, increased their strength, and had also conquered Ingria, Livonia, and the city of Narva. At the same time, he had reared a more honourable and lasting monument of his greatness. In the yet hardly conquered country, and on a

desert island, which the long winter of that climate rendered almost inaccessible, the czar laid the foundation of a new city, designed for the royal residence; and he had transported to it in less than five years, 300,000 inhabitants.

Poland being subdued, Charles, confident in his successes, resolved to attack his more formidable enemy in the heart of his own dominions, and directed his march to Moscow, but the roads were destroyed, and the country desolated. Finding himself obstructed on the route first attempted, and receiving a promise of succour from Mazeppa, the chief of the Cossacks, Charles next endeavoured to penetrate to the capital of Russia through the Ukraine. He also ordered his general Lewenhaupt to bring him a reinforcement from Livonia. He entered the Ukraine in September, and overcoming every obstacle, advanced to the river Duna, where he expected to be joined by Lewenhaupt and Mazeppa. Lewenhaupt was encountered by the Russians and defeated. Mazeppa failed of his promised succour. Still, Charles, with a dreary winter before him, and with his army suffering from fatigue and famine, madly persisted in his march. At Pultowa, he engaged the Russian army, consisting of more than 70,000 men, with the czar at its head. Charles, so often the conqueror, here suffered an entire defeat. With only 300 guards, he escaped wounded from the field, went to Bender, and put himself under the protection of the Turks.

1709.

Battle of Pultowa.

**Consequences of Charles' defeat.** Augustus had declared the treaty which Charles had extorted from him, void, and renewed his claim to the crown of Poland. The czar supported his pretensions, entered Poland with an army, and reinstated Augustus in the regal authority. Denmark declared war anew with Sweden, Peter laid claim to several of its provinces, and the king of Prussia to others, and nothing but the interposition of the southern powers of Europe, prevented the dismemberment of Sweden.

**Charles incites the Turks against the Russians.** Meantime Charles was received by the Turks with great hospitality, and employed himself in seeking to engage the Ottoman Porte in war with Russia. The Porte showed their disposition to gratify his wishes, by imprisoning the Russian ambassador. Peter, when informed of this, advanced at the head of an army upon the Turkish frontier, as far as Moldavia. Here he was in imminent danger of the entire loss of his army, which was encompassed by that of the Turks. In this disastrous situation, he was saved by the management of the czarina, Catharine, who induced him to make proposals of peace to the haughty vizier. The proposals were accepted, and Peter relieved from his perilous condition.

**1714**  
**Charles returns to Sweden.** Meanwhile the affairs of Sweden continued to suffer. The refusal of Charles to subscribe to the treaty which the emperor and maritime powers had formed, kept alive the war in Sweden. The Danes, Saxons and Russians, continued hostilities; and the Swedes, though reduced to great distress, perseveringly resisted. Charles began to be troublesome to the Turks, who, though they desired not to violate the laws of hospitality, yet requested him to leave their dominions, and at last resorted to force, but still without effect. At length, intelligence that the Swedes were urging the regency of the kingdom upon his sister, with a view of forcing her to make peace with Denmark and Russia, he was induced to return to his kingdom. He arrived at Stralsund in Pomerania, five years after the battle of Pultowa.

The czar, whose navy had acquired considerable strength, commanded the Baltic, and now besieged Charles with a small army which he had collected, in Stralsund. The place was taken by storm, Charles escaped in a small vessel, passed safely through the Danish fleet, and landed in Sweden. Fifteen years had passed since the monarch left his capital, bent on the conquest of the world. In his humbled fortunes, he did not choose to revisit it, but passed the winter at Carlscroon. Undaunted amid all his reverses, and unsated with blood, he still thought but of war. While his numerous enemies had made themselves masters of all his provinces, and threatened to destroy Sweden itself, Charles invaded Norway, and made the use-

less conquest of Christina, which he was soon forced to abandon.

1718.

Death of Charles.

However, he a second time invaded this kingdom, and while watching the attack of his soldiers upon Fredericshall, was killed by the discharge of a canon, and expired without a groan.

His death removed the greatest obstacle to a peace among the northern nations. The senate of Sweden took immediate measures for settling the government. Baron Goertz, a favourite minister of Charles', and by whose counsels he had iniquitously protracted the war, to the great injury of his kingdom, was arrested and executed.

Ulrica Eleonora, sister of Charles, was raised to the throne. Several

1718.

Ulrica Eleonora,  
queen of Sweden.

Sweden obtains  
peace.

treaties with the different powers were concluded, in which by ample concessions, Sweden obtained peace. The czar, the most powerful enemy was the last pacified, and then, only by obtaining the important provinces of Livonia, Ingria, and a part of Carelia.

Peter the Great, after the peace with Sweden, assumed the title of emperor, which has been retained by his successors. In the remaining years of his reign, he successfully engaged in war with Persia. He extended his dominion from the Caspian to the southern shores of the Baltic sea. His name, though great, is sullied by acts of cruelty. His son Alexis was a dissolute and unpromising prince, and Peter, to make way for the ascension of a younger son, procured his death.

1725.

Death of Peter the  
Great.

This son soon after died. His wife Catharine was crowned empress during the life-time of her husband, and on his death, succeeded to the government of the Russian empire.\*

\* We have continued this account of the northern nations at this interesting period of their history beyond the limits of the Epoch, (the peace of Utrecht) for the purpose of bringing to a close the career of the two principle actors, Charles XII. and Peter the Great.

## PERIOD V.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Treaty of Utrecht, closing the war { **FOURTH EPOCH, 1713 A. D.** } of the Spanish succession.

**TO THE**

Peace of { FIFTH EPOCH, 1748 A. D. } Aix-la Chapelle.

## CHAPTER I.

## SOUTHERN NATIONS OF EUROPE TO THE EIGHT YEARS WAR.

## SECTION I.

**THE** peace of Utrecht had produced a considerable change in the situation and affairs of the southern nations of Eu-

1713. rope. Austria received an accession of territory in the Spanish Netherlands, and in Italy. Two new kingdoms arose, Prussia, the title of whose king, Frederic II., was now for the first time acknowledged by France; and Sicily, which, with his hereditary possessions, was erected into a kingdom for Victor Amadeus II., duke of Savoy. Although no treaty was made between Spain and Austria, and although the war ceased, yet neither of these powers had resigned its pretensions. The peace of Utrecht was so much for the interest of the leading powers, that a state of comparative quiet succeeded. Austria, was, however, short-

**1715.** **Turks** overrun the Morea.

The imperial forces, under prince Eugene, attacked and defeated their army at Peterwaradin, and again, at Belgrade. A peace was soon after concluded, in which Turkey ceded to Austria, Belgrade, part of Servia, and Wallachia. Venice retained part of Dalmatia, but surrendered to the Turks the Morea, of which they had taken possession the preceding year.



While Austria was employing her forces in the east, Spain, under Philip V., was concerting measures for renewing hostilities, with the design to recover the possessions which the treaty of Utrecht had given to the house of Austria. The Spaniards made themselves masters of Sardinia, and a great part of the island of Sicily. Alberoni, the minister of Philip, had also concerted secret measures to procure for his monarch the regency of France, (his grandfather, Louis XIV., being now dead,) and for placing the son of James II., called the pretender, upon the throne of England. But the leading object of his policy was, to recover the Spanish possessions in Italy, as a portion for the children of Elizabeth, the queen of Spain, an Italian princess of the house of Farnese, and heiress to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena.

A discovery of the designs of the Spanish court, and the open acts of hostilities committed against Sardinia and Sicily, aroused the jealousy of the neighbouring powers. England, France, Austria and Holland, formed a league for the preservation of the peace of Utrecht, called the "Quadruple Alliance," which provided that the emperor of Germany should renounce all claim to Spain, and the colonies; and that the king of Spain should give up his pretensions to provinces already ceded. It stipulated also, that Don Carlos, son of Elizabeth, should eventually succeed to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia; and that the duke of Savoy should exchange Sicily for Sardinia. The Spanish court refused to accede to these terms, and a declaration of war was made by England and France against Spain. Sicily and Sardinia were recovered. A French army marched towards Spain, and Philip V., alarmed at the consequences of his obstinacy, disgraced his minister, Alberoni, and acceded to the terms of the "Quadruple Alliance."

The emperor of Germany, Charles VI., who had no sons, desired to secure the succession of the Austrian possessions to his daughter, Maria Theresa. With this view, he planned a law for securing the succession of heirs female, called the Pragmatic sanction, for which he had previously obtained the assent of the hereditary states of the empire, and which formed a matter of negotiation with the other European powers.

The succession of Don Carlos to Tuscany, Parma and Placentia being secured, and the Pragmatic sanction guaranteed, nothing now disturbed the repose of Europe, until the vacancy of the throne of Poland, occasioned by the death of Augustus II. Stanislaus Leczinski, whom Charles XII. of Sweden had placed on the throne of that kingdom, was now chosen king, and received the support of Louis XV. of France, who had married his daughter. The sovereigns of Austria and Russia opposed his election, and compelled the Poles to a second choice, when Augustus, son of the deceased monarch, was raised to the throne. The king of France formed an

Projects of the  
Spanish minis-  
ter Alberoni.

1718.

"The Quadruple  
Alliance."

1731.

The Pragmatic  
sanction.

1733.

Disputes respecting  
the succession of the  
Polish crown.

alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and commenced hostilities. The war was carried on in Italy by the allies, who made themselves masters of most of the Austrian possessions in that country. The German empire was attacked by the French, and Philipsburg was taken. The losses of the emperor, and the pacific disposition of cardinal Fleury, who was at the head of the French ministry, caused a peace, which, the succeeding year, was settled at Vienna. By this treaty, the French guaranteed the Pragmatic sanction.

1735.  
Peace of Vienna.

Stanislaus, for the support of whose pretensions the war was undertaken, renounced his claim to the Polish throne, and received in compensation the duchy of Lorraine. The duke of Lorraine received Tuscany in exchange. Don Carlos was acknowledged king of the two Sicilies, and the king of Sardinia received some accession of territory.

## SECTION II.

The emperor, Charles VI., believed that he had secured to his daughter her inheritance. But the Pragmatic sanction, which had been guaranteed by the various powers, to secure to Maria Theresa the rich Austrian possessions, including the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, proved but a feeble barrier against the selfishness and ambition, which ruled in the hearts of the neighbouring monarchs. The death of her father was immediately followed by claims from the elector of Bavaria to the kingdom of Bohemia; and of the elector of Saxony now king of Poland, to the whole Austrian territories. Besides these, the kings of Spain and Sardinia revived their antiquated pretensions.

Nevertheless, Maria Theresa took possession of her inheritance, and received the most flattering homage, particularly from her Hungarian subjects, with whom her conciliating manners had rendered her extremely popular. She had married Francis of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuscany, and she greatly desired his elevation to the imperial throne.

Prussia had now become a kingdom of considerable strength and importance. An immense treasure amassed by the parsimony of the preceding king, Frederic William, and an army of sixty thousand men had passed under the control of his son Frederic II., who had succeeded to the throne. Frederic was now eager to employ the power and wealth of which he was master, to enlarge his territories. His heart was chiefly bent on obtaining Silesia, a province within the dominion of Maria Theresa. At the head of a powerful army, he marched into her territory, and then offered to support her claims in other quarters on condition of her peaceably relinquishing to him Lower Silesia. She rejected his offers, and prepared to resist his usurpation. The armies of the king of Prussia and

1741.  
Frederic of Prussia  
begins the eight  
years' war.

of Maria Theresa, who had received the title of queen of Hungary, met at Molwitz; the Russians obtained a partial victory, and the whole province of Silesia submitted to Frederic.

His successes awakened the ambition of the French court, which had long been secretly desiring to interfere in the Austrian affairs, and which now resolved to control the imperial election. A treaty was formed between Louis XV., Frederic of Prussia, and Charles, elector of Bavaria, by which it was agreed to divide the Austrian inheritance, and place the elector of Bavaria on the imperial throne.

Three sovereigns  
league against  
Maria Theresa.

Military operations immediately commenced, and the forces of the French, joined to those of the elector of Bavaria, entered Upper Austria, made themselves masters of Lintz, and part of the army advanced to within a few leagues of Vienna. Maria Theresa was compelled to retire to Hungary. The Hungarians, aroused by the wrongs of their sovereign, enlisted in her cause with ardour; and from the other parts of her dominions, powerful armies rallied to her standard. The elector of Bavaria was deterred by the advanced state of the season, and the strength of the garrison of Vienna,

1742.

Elector of Bavaria  
crowned king of  
Bohemia and em-  
peror of Germany.

from besieging that city. He entered Bohemia, and took the city of Prague, where he was crowned king of Bohemia, and proceeding to Frankfort, was elected emperor of Germany under the name of Charles VII.

But while Charles was obtaining the imperial crown, the forces of the queen had been successful in Upper Austria, recovered Lintz, and invaded the Bavarian territories. Another army had compelled the Prussian forces to retreat from Moravia. Shortly after this, an attempt of two Austrian armies to unite their forces, in order to oppose the French in Bohemia, was intercepted by the Prussian king, and a battle succeeded at Craslau. The Austrians were compelled to retire, but Frederic, whose victory was almost

1742.

Treaty of Breslau.

a defeat, began to desire peace; and regardless of his allies, entered into a treaty with the queen at Breslau. She granted him Upper and Lower Silesia, and he engaged to remain neutral during the rest of the war. The neutrality of the king of Poland was also procured by a grant of new territories.

Meanwhile the French army in Bohemia was reduced to the necessity of acting on the defensive. That portion which was in possession of Prague, was at length compelled to evacuate the city, but through the skill of the commander, Belleisle, they effected a safe retreat.

The result of this campaign induced Louis, who was now deserted by his most powerful ally, the king of Prussia, to offer proposals of peace, which were rejected. George I. of England, now resolved to take a more active part; and British and Hanoverian troops were brought in, to aid the queen of Hungary. In the next campaign, the French forces were driven out of Bohemia, and the emperor

1743.  
Battle of Dettingen.

was reduced to the utmost distress. In Flanders, the British, Hanoverian, and Austrian troops, maintained a sanguinary contest with the French; and at Dettingen the French army was defeated.

### SECTION III.

This year, 1743, the queen of Hungary entered into a treaty with the king of Sardinia, by which he engaged to bring an army into the field, in aid of her cause. These successes of the queen, and the haughtiness with which she had rejected every proposal of peace, awakened a jealousy among some of the German powers, and led to a new coalition against her.

Louis XV. renewed his alliance with Spain at Fontainebleau, and declared war against England; and from this period these two powers may almost be regarded the principals in the war. By the influence of France, Prussia, Sweden, and some of the German princes, were at length induced to arm in defence of the emperor. The king of Prussia invaded Bohemia. His successes at first were rapid, but he was soon compelled to surrender his conquests, and retire. The emperor was in danger of being driven again from his capital, when death put an end to his hopes and fears.

Maximilian, son of Charles, now entered into a treaty with the queen of Hungary, by which the election of Francis was secured. She engaged to put him in possession of his hereditary estates, and recognize the imperial authority, as having been vested in his father, on condition of his giving to her husband his vote for emperor at the ensuing election, and also of his renouncing all claim to the Austrian possessions.

An opportunity for bringing about a general peace now offered, but France and Spain were bent upon continuing the war. England still aided Austria, and Prussia remained in alliance with France. The republic of Genoa concluded an alliance with the house of Bourbon, but they were obliged to yield to the superior numbers of the confederate army; and Milan, Pavia, and several other towns were taken. The armies of Prussia carried on the war in Silesia, and Bohemia, but after Frederic had obtained two decisive and bloody victories, one near Friedberg in Silesia, the other in Bohemia, a treaty of peace was made at Dresden, by which he acknowledged the validity of Francis' election, (which had already taken place at Frankfort,) and was confirmed in the possession of Silesia.

The French maintained the war with obstinacy, in Flanders.

1746.

Battles of Fontenoy  
and Roucoux.

Marshal Saxe, who commanded the French army, obtained a victory over the English and Hanoverians, under the duke of Cumberland, at Fontenoy, and reduced Brussels and Brabant. Soon after the battle of Fontenoy, the duke of Cumberland was recalled by the progress of the Chevalier St. George, whom the French had encouraged to make a descent upon England. The Austrians were left to maintain the contest in Flanders, and marshal Saxe obtained a victory over them, at Roucoux.

In the meantime, the queen of Hungary, having made peace with Prussia, was ready to turn the whole force of her arms against France and Spain. The king of England, incensed by the support given to the pretender, only waited to suppress the insurrection which his presence occasioned, to engage with new zeal in the continental war. In the succeeding campaign, the Dutch took an active part against the French ; and the duke of Cumberland returned with a reinforcement of British troops. An indecisive but bloody battle was fought at Val, after which the French invested, and finally, to the great consternation of the Dutch, made themselves masters of Bergen-op-zoom, the strongest fortification in Dutch Brabant. At sea the British flag was triumphant.

1747.

French take Ber-  
gen-op-zoom.

Louis now turned his thoughts towards peace, which the situation of his kingdom, notwithstanding his late victories, rendered neces-

1748.

Peace of Aix-la-  
Chapelle.

sary. A congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, and a treaty formed, by which mutual restitution of all places taken during the war, was made ; the queen of Spain obtained for her second son a sovereignty in Italy, composed of the duchies of Parma and Placentia. The king of Prussia was guarantied in the possession of Silesia. The right of Maria Theresa to the hereditary possessions of the house of Austria, with the exception of such portions as were already ceded to other powers, was acknowledged, and guarantied anew. Neither England nor France gained any thing by, this long and bloody contest. Thus was closed "The Eight Years War ;" begun and carried on, not for any good, so far as the people are considered ; but during which, their blood flowed freely to gratify the ambition of a few crowned heads.

## CHAPTER II.

## ENGLAND.

The union of the legislative powers of England and Scotland, is the most important political event of the reign of queen Anne. Up to this period there had been a

1706.  
Union of the Scotch  
and English parlia-  
ments.

Scottish parliament, though many efforts had been made to effect a union of it with the English. To such a union the parliament of Scotland now gave consent, a measure which, though it diminished the political importance of that kingdom, secured its tranquillity.

England, grown weary of the long and sanguinary wars for humbling the house of Bourbon, and depriving it of the succession to the Spanish crown, was clamorous for peace. Intrigues were set on foot against the duke of Marlborough. The queen allowed herself to be governed by an ungrateful and treacherous party,\* who insulted and libelled that general, and at length deprived him of all his offices. After this, by the treaty of Utrecht, a general peace was obtained. Queen Anne survived this event but a short time. No longer occupied with foreign affairs, the ministry broke into furious quarrels with each other. With all the energy her gentle nature could command, the queen sought to direct affairs

Duke of Marlbor-  
ough ungenerously  
treated.

and settle difficulties, and to that purpose she attended a long conference and dispute of her cabinet council. Her feminine nature could not endure this strife of masculine passions. She declared she could not outlive it, sunk into a lethargy, and after lingering two days, expired. The ministers, when they found that the queen must die, roused to a better spirit, and by their wise and rapid measures,

1714.  
Queen Anne literally  
"plagued to death."

placed the kingdom in a condition which secured the peaceful accession of the Hanoverian line, in the person of George I.

George I.

\* Some of the most popular writers of a literature which is common to us with the English, Pope, Bolingbroke, Addison, Steele, Swift, Prior, Arbuthnot, &c., have many allusions to the events of this reign. Queen Anne, when young, formed an intimacy with the witty, sprightly, but high tempered Sarah Jennings, afterwards married to Col. Churchill, who rose by his great military services, and by the affection of the queen towards his wife, until he became duke of Marlborough, and received the splendid estate and palace called from one of his great battles, "Blenheim." The duchess introduced to the service of the queen one Agnes Hill, a weak but cunning sycophant, who supplanted her in Anne's affections, and afterwards became "the Lady Masham." The duchess had become presuming and imperious, and when she found that the queen was growing tired of her sway, she gave loose to her fiery tongue, and irritated Anne by continual reproaches. When affairs came to this pass among the women, then the enemies of Marlborough, the Lords Bolingbroke, Oxford, and others, by paying court to Lady Masham, brought the queen to strip him of his office.

This reign presents an uninteresting portion of English history. The king, cold and calculating, as his actions showed him to be, was yet not remiss in declaring, in his speeches to his obsequious parliament, his great regard for his "loving subjects." The three great factions who divided the nation were still the whigs, tories, and Jacobites, of which only the latter were opposed to his accession. It should have been his policy to conciliate them all; instead of which, he lent himself completely to the whig party, and was guilty of flagrant injustice to the leading tories, taking away their estates, and in some instances procuring their execution.

George I. an enemy  
to tories.

Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, and the earl of Ormond, who had stood high in queen Anne's favour, were attainted of high treason and deprived of their estates.\*

The aged earl of Oxford was impeached, and though he was suffering with disease, yet he was imprisoned in the tower. His physician declared it would endanger his life, yet the king would show no mercy. The principal crime alleged against him, was that of having led queen Anne to make the peace of Utrecht. That such allegations were but mere pretences to commit legal murder on men whom the king, and his unprincipled and artful minister, Sir Robert Walpole, wished out of their way, the people plainly saw, and hence the sentiment of hatred arose in their minds. The Jacobite party gained ground, and the leaders projected a rebellion. The chevalier St. George was invited over, and Louis XIV. favoured, though not openly, his cause. The earl of Mar, aided by many of the Scottish nobles, took arms, and the earl of Derwentwater put himself at the head of a force in the north of England. While the chevalier was preparing to embark, Louis XIV. died; and the duke of Orleans, who became regent of France, (Louis XV. being but a sickly child) did not favour the enterprise of the Jacobites, though he amused and deceived them by false pretences.

George I., vigilant and alert, had prepared for the emergency. His

1715.

The Pretender's  
army defeated at  
Preston Pans.

troops totally defeated the forces under lord Derwentwater, at Preston Pans; and on the same day another army, under the command of the duke of Argyle, gained an advantage over the earl of Mar, at Sheriffmuir. After these transactions, the chevalier ar-

rived in Scotland, and was proclaimed king by his adherents; but finding his cause desperate, and knowing that a heavy price was set upon his head, he returned to France. Some of his adherents fled, some submitted, and some were apprehended. Those who fell into the hands of the government, were treated with unsparing cruelty.

This reign was the era of the famous speculating project, called the South Sea Scheme. The South Sea company

1720.

South Sea Scheme.

was formed on some pretence of securing advantages in the South sea trade, but with the real object of obtaining the public stock, and becoming the sole creditor of

\* They saved themselves by a flight to France, and during their residence there, favoured the cause of the chevalier St. George. Bolingbroke afterwards obtained the king's pardon, and his hereditary estates.

the nation. An enormous amount of South sea stock was created in the first place, without any actual capital. Of this, a large amount was given in bribes to ensure the co-operation of influential persons, in the views of the speculators. They succeeded, and the holders of a considerable part of the public debt were induced to exchange their securities for this stock ; and it rose in the market at one time to four hundred per cent. above par. The whole nation seemed seized with the South-sea mania. The government and the bank of England, as well as innumerable individuals, became deeply involved. At length the bubble burst. The stock sunk to rise no more ; and individuals, who had rashly parted with their real property, to purchase nominal, found themselves in a destitute and forlorn condition. The bank was in imminent danger of failure, and public credit, of extinction. King George, who had gone on a visit to his Hanoverian dominions, was called home in great haste, and he and his parliament succeeded, after great difficulties, in allaying the evil, and setting the wheels of commerce again in motion ; but many families were irretrievably ruined, and the national credit and resources were, for the time, impaired.

George I. was succeeded by his son George II. This monarch, as has been already related, engaged in alliances with Frederic the great of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria, and sent an army against the French, under the duke of Cumberland.

During this reign, another attempt was made to restore the Stuarts to the throne. The chevalier Charles Edward, son of the pretender, encouraged by the Jacobites, landed in Scotland. The Highlanders, and many Scottish nobles joined him. At the head of these forces, the prince marched to Edinburgh, surprised and made himself master of the city, established himself in Holy-Rood palace, and caused his father to be proclaimed king of Great Britain. He afterwards gained a victory over the king's troops at Preston Pans. Parliament, alarmed, recalled the duke of Cumberland from the continental war, and put him at the head of the forces. Meantime the prince made an irruption into England, took the town of Carlisle, and proceeded to Derby. But finding that few of the English Jacobites joined his standard, and learning that extensive preparations were making against him, the disappointed adventurer retraced his steps. At Falkirk, he obtained another advantage over the royal troops ; but the duke of Cumberland, who followed him, obtained a bloody victory over his adherents, at Culloden.

1746. From this time the wretched young prince, a heavy price being set upon his head, as upon his father's, wandered for five months, under various disguises, and was pursued and hunted from place to place, suffering extreme hardships, yet experiencing the attachment and fidelity of the Scots ; the poorest of whom would not betray him for money, until at length he procured a passage to France. The battle of Culloden crushed forever the hopes of the unfortunate Stuarts. The conduct of the victors to the vanquished was rigorous and cruel,



## PERIOD VI.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE ,

Peace of { FIFTH EPOCH, 1748 A. D. } Aix-la-Chapelle,

TO THE



Washington assuming the command at Cambridge.

American { SIXTH EPOCH, 1776 A. D. } Independence.

## CHAPTER I.

EUROPE FROM THE TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1748, TO  
THE TREATY OF PARIS, 1763.

### SECTION I.

AN awful visitation of Almighty God was manifested at this period ; a dreadful earthquake levelled the palaces of Lisbon in the dust, and crushed the inhabitants beneath their ruins. The earth opened and swallowed them up, and the sea overflowed them.

1755.  
Earthquake at  
Lisbon.

Fifty thousand perished in an hour. But the rulers of the nations were bent on again preparing for their people the more destructive evil of war.

England formed an alliance with Prussia ; France, with Austria, Russia, and Sweden. The alliance of the empress Maria Theresa with France, the ancient and hereditary enemy of the house of Austria, for the purpose of invading a part of the German empire, is accounted for by her jealousy and animosity towards Frederic, the king of Prussia, and her desire of recovering the possessions wrested from her by that monarch.

The French made themselves masters of the island of Minorca. The war in Germany was prosecuted with success by the king of Prussia. He invaded Saxony, and compelled Augustus, the elector, to abandon Dresden, of which he took possession. This success he followed up, with the invasion of Bohemia, and obtained a victory over an Austrian army at Lowesitz.

The following year, the French, under marechal d'Etrées, passed the Rhine, under pretence of invading Prussia, but with the purpose of reducing Hanover. The king of England, warmly attached to his electoral dominions, was frustrated in his attempt to send a force sufficient to stop the progress of the French, by Pitt, now his minister, who opposed all further entanglements in the continental quarrel. George I., resolving to continue the war, changed his minister, and sent the duke of Cumberland to the continent, to command an army of 40,000 Hanoverians and Hessians ; notwithstanding which, the French conquered the electorate.

Frederic of Prussia was now in an alarming position. An army of 180,000 Russians was threatening to invade his dominions ; the Swedes were in arms, and ready to enter Pomerania, in order to regain that country ; and the empress Maria Theresa had augmented her armies to 180,000, intending to attack him on the side of the German empire. He now found it necessary to make four divisions of his army ; each of which was to enter Bohemia separately, but to unite with the others as soon as practicable ; and all to join in the neighbourhood of Prague. After the union of three divisions, Frederic gave battle to the Austrians, who, under the command of prince Charles of Lorraine, and marshal Daun, were encamped near

Prague. After a hard fought battle, the Austrians were compelled to quit the field and retire within the walls, which Frederic ineffectually besieged. On the approach of marshal Daun, at the head of another division of the Austrian army, Frederic, with a part of his forces, advanced towards the Elbe, and gave him battle at Colin. Twenty thousand men were left dead on the field, and Frederic, compelled to retire, raised the siege of Prague, and evacuated Bohemia. This campaign was also unfortunate to the Prussian arms in other quarters. The Russians had invaded the kingdom of Prussia, while the French and Swedes were ravaging its provinces. The martial genius of Frederic did not desert him. Assembling another

1757.

French conquer the  
electorate of Hano-  
ver.

1757.

Battles of Prague  
and Colin.

Battles of Rosbach  
and Leuthen.

army, he offered battle to the French and imperialists at Rosbach, where he obtained a complete victory. He then marched against the army of the Austrians which was still in Silesia, under prince Charles, at Leuthen, near Lissa. The Prussian arms were again successful, and nearly the whole of Silesia was now recovered. The Russians, meanwhile, had retired into their own country, and the Prussian army, which had been opposed to them, being left at liberty, now turned against the Swedes, and recovered many of their conquests in Pomerania.

The Hanoverians and Hessians again took up arms to drive the French from their country, and prince Ferdinand, of Brunswick, was appointed, on the part of England, to the command of the electoral forces. The French were compelled to recede, and to evacuate place after place, until their whole army repassed the Rhine.

In the following campaign, prince Ferdinand maintained his ground in Hanover. The king of Prussia besieged Olmutz, 1758. but after remaining four weeks before the city, was compelled to retire and turn his forces against the Russians, who had invaded Brandenburg. He obtained a victory over them at Zorndorf, and compelled them to retreat into Poland. Frederic was afterwards defeated at Hochkirchen, by the Austrians; but he still retained Silesia, and prevented them from deriving any important advantage from their victory. He next marched into Saxony, where the Austrians had besieged Dresden and Leipzig, compelled them to raise the siege of both cities, and thus ended the campaign with the triumph of the Prussian arms.

The British had in the meantime been successful at sea, and captured several French vessels.

## SECTION II.

The succeeding campaign opened upon Frederic with a reverse of fortune. The Russians again advanced upon Silesia, and made themselves masters of Frankfort upon the Oder. The Prussian monarch marched against a combined Russian and Austrian force, under general Laudon, which was posted at the village of Cunnersdorf. A most sanguinary battle ensued. Notwithstanding the almost incredible exertions of Frederic, the superior numbers of the

1759.

Battle of Cunners-  
dorf.

Russians and Austrians prevailed, and the Prussians were defeated. At one period of the battle, victory seemed to have declared in favour of Frederic, who at the moment, wrote a congratulatory note to his queen, "We have driven the Russians from their intrenchments—Expect within two hours to hear of a glorious victory." His triumph was short, and in a few hours another note conveyed to the queen the orders, "Remove the royal family from Berlin—Let the

archives be carried to Potsdam—The town may make conditions with the enemy.”

The battle of Cunnersdorf, in which Frederic lost 16,000 men, was a severe blow to him; yet so skilful were his manœuvres that the Russians did not hazard the attack of Berlin, and he soon appeared again in the field with a formidable force.

Meantime, prince Ferdinand, with his British and Hanoverian forces, drew the French into an engagement at 1759. Battle of Minden. Minden, and completely defeated them.

In Silesia, Frederic was now compelled to act on the defensive. The Russians and Swedes had entered Pomerania. Another Russian army was to join the Austrians in Silesia. To prevent this junction, was now the object of Frederic, and at Lignitz, he succeeded in drawing the Austrians into a battle, before the arrival of the Russians. He defeated them, and was thus relieved from his most pressing embarrassments. The Russians, on learning the defeat of the Austrians, repassed the Oder, but sent a strong detachment into Brandenburg, where they joined the Austrians and made themselves masters of Berlin. Frederic passed into Saxony, fought and defeated the Austrians under marshal Daun. This victory resulted in the recovery of nearly the whole of Saxony, where the Prussian king established his winter quarters.

Russians take  
Berlin.

The death of George II., which occurred at this period, did not affect the relations of England and Prussia. George 1760. III. continued in the same course of policy; resolved upon the preservation of his German possessions. A change had taken place in the Spanish councils, when Charles III., brother of the late monarch, Ferdinand VI., ascended the throne.

Many circumstances conspired to draw the court of Spain from their neutrality. The most powerful of these, was jealousy of the success of the British arms in America. A family compact was now formed between the Bourbon kings of France and Spain; the result of which, was a declaration of war between England and Spain. Portugal became also involved in this war, by refusing to join the compact against England.

Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick maintained the contest with the French in Westphalia, but nothing decisive was accomplished. The king of Prussia still continued the war in Silesia; and his brother, prince Henry, in Saxony; but the warfare was, throughout this campaign, wholly defensive. At sea, the British flag was still triumphant. Besides the capture of some vessels, this campaign was signalized by the conquest of Belle-isle, an island on the coast of France.

A sudden and unexpected event occurred at this time, in the death of Elizabeth, empress of Russia, which relieved Frederic from a dreaded and inveterate enemy. Her nephew, Peter III., acceding to the Russian throne, a change of policy took place. Peter had long admired the hero of Prussia, now called “Frederic the great;”

Elizabeth of Russia  
succeeded by  
Peter III.

1760.  
Bourbons of France  
and Spain form a  
family compact.

and one of the first acts of his reign, was to conclude a peace with him. Shortly after, he made an alliance with him, and soon he sent him a reinforcement of Russian troops. Sweden followed the example of Russia ; and Frederic found himself at liberty to turn his whole strength against the Austrians. He was fast carrying into effect his plans for their expulsion from Silesia, when another revolution in Russia occurred. Peter III. had, by his numerous innova-

1762.

Peter murdered and  
succeeded by Cath-  
arine I.

tions in the internal administration of his kingdom, as well as by his alliance with Frederic, occasioned great discontent in his empire. Domestic dis-  
sentiment was added to the evils which surrounded him, and his empress Catharine, joined by the dis-

affected of the clergy, nobility, and army, accomplished his overthrow. Peter was dethroned, imprisoned, and probably murdered ; and Catharine was raised to the throne of the czars. With the imperial power, however, she did not resume the policy of Elizabeth, but while she recalled the Russians in the service of Frederic, she preserved the nation in a strict neutrality.

Frederic continued the war with increased energy ; recovered Silesia, and invaded Bohemia and Franconia. The British had been successful at sea, and in America. Negotiations had been in

1763.

Peace of Paris.

progress between England and France for some time, and a peace was concluded at Paris. France

ceded to Great Britain, Canada, in its utmost extent, all the western side of the Mississippi, except New Orleans and its territories, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and all Florida. Great Britain made some concessions to France in the partition of the West India islands. It was stipulated that France should remain neutral in the contest between Austria and Prussia. Shortly after

Treaty of Huberts-  
burg.

the conclusion of this treaty, another was made between Prussia, Austria, and Saxony, at Hubertsburg, which closed the "war of seven years."

This war had not only devastated the fair plains of Europe, and drunk the blood of myriads of her sons, but it had spread destruction through her dependencies, in Asia and America ; thus stretching over more than half the circuit of the globe. And this destruction of the human race was made, because monarchs, with already much more of the world than they could enjoy, coveted still greater territories, and their thousands tamely followed them to "be slaughtered. In pity to their fate, we forbear to say they deserved it by their folly.

## CHAPTER II.

AFFAIRS OF GREAT BRITAIN FROM THE PEACE OF  
AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1748.

The domestic history of England during the reign of George II., is a catalogue of the political knaveries of Sir Robert Walpole, who made no scruple to spend the public money, and increase the national debt, that he might practice every species of bribery and corruption which was calculated to keep himself in power. At length he became odious to the nation, and changes in the ministry occurred, but the course of politics was not yet reformed. About this period, the war against France, carried on in America, commenced. At first it was managed without spirit or success. At length, to prop up their sinking credit, the ministry called to a seat

in the cabinet, William Pitt, a leader in parliament, distinguished for his high powers of eloquence; 1756. but to their surprise they found he had accepted a post of honour only to serve his country; and that neither office nor money could tempt him to countenance measures which he did not approve. He resigned his offices and retired. The nation were clamorous in his praise, and petitioned the king to place him at the head of affairs. George had himself, from the condition of the American war, become sensible of the necessity of a change of measures. Pitt was recalled and made prime minister. From this period, Great Britain rose rapidly. Men were appointed to office, not because they were the creatures of those in power, but because they were suited to the service, and were true friends to their country. Wolfe was selected to command in the American war, and Quebec, and afterwards all Canada fell into the hands of the British.

George II. was not distinguished either for talents or virtues, yet as a sovereign he was more compliant with the wishes of his people than his father had been. He was somewhat more a Briton, and less a Hanoverian. His oldest son, Frederic, with whom he quarrelled,

1760.

George III.

was a prince of promising character. He dying before his father, his son, George III., then twenty-two years of age, succeeded to the crown of Great Britain, at a time when the nation was at the period of its greatest prosperity.

## CHAPTER III.

NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE,  
TO THE PEACE OF PARIS, 1763.

## SECTION I.

During the interval of peace in Europe, which occurred after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, dissensions arose between the French and English colonists in America, and the East Indies. In these dissensions, the two countries, each desirous to keep what territory they already possessed, and acquire more, became by degrees involved; and at length, in 1756, war between France and England was formally declared.

As the affairs of the French and English colonists of North America have not, up to this period, materially affected the politics of Europe, we have not before thought proper to break the chain of our narration, to introduce them; but shall now give a brief sketch of the steps by which they attained to the condition in which history here finds them, although in adopting this course, we make an exception to our general method.\*

The right of discovery was, as has been before remarked, fully recognized by the European nations. Two brothers,

1497.  
Discoveries of the  
Cabots.

1534.  
Discovery of  
Cartier.

Discoveries of de  
Leon and de Soto.

John and Sebastian Cabot, under queen Elizabeth, discovered and coasted North America, from Newfoundland to Florida, and took possession of the country for the English. Subsequently, James Cartier, under Francis I. of France, discovered the mouth of the St. Lawrence in 1435; and in a second voyage sailed up that noble river. John Ponce de Leon, in 1512, discovered Florida; and Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541; the southern part of Mis-

issippi, for Spain. La Salle, in 1680, penetrated through the lakes to the majestic Mississippi, the great valley of which was named Louisiana, in honour of Louis XIV.

The boundaries of the countries claimed on account of these discoveries, were wholly indefinite; and each nation was ambitious of possessing extensive territories. Hence, they each took care in granting the letters patent to their subjects, who were disposed to colonize the country, to make their claims sufficiently extensive.

Indefinite claims of  
the French and  
English.

Thus some of the English patents which bounded east on the Atlantic, gave the patentees the country as far west as the Pacific. The French, in some instances, gave patents running from the St. Lawrence, indefinitely, south. These conflicting claims had, while the

\* We make also another exception in giving only small sketches of American affairs, and carry on their history to the "Peace of Paris," 1763.

settlements kept along the shore of the ocean, and in the valley of the St. Lawrence, caused no dispute; but at the period immediately succeeding the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, they occasioned the contention between the English and French colonists. The English, having extended themselves to the west, and the French to the south, their claims interfered.\*

The Ohio company had received from the English government a grant of a large tract of land on the Ohio river, which the French claimed as within their territory. The French governor of Canada first threatened, and next seized and imprisoned, those who had erected trading houses on these lands.

Dinwiddie, the English governor of Virginia, sent a young officer across the wilderness, to bear dispatches to the French commandant, requiring him to desist from aggressions upon the English, and quit their territories. The French not obeying this

1754.

Washington sent  
against the French.

mandate, Dinwiddie sent again the same officer, Col. George Washington, at the head of a regiment, to enforce it. Although his conduct was gallant, his force was inferior, and he was unsuccessful. The French now proceeded to the erection of a fort at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers; to which they gave the name of the French admiral, Du Quesne.

The British cabinet, learning the state of their colonies, recommended to them to cultivate the friendship of the most powerful tribes of the savages, and to form a union among themselves.

Accordingly, a congress of delegates from the four colonies of New England, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and

1754.

Congress at Albany.

Rhode Island, which had for some time been confederated, met at Albany; with delegates from New York, Maryland and Pennsylvania; and on the 4th of July, 1757, Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania, drew up a plan of union, which being approved by the congress, copies were transmitted to the several colonial governments; and to the court of Great Britain. It suited not the colonies, because it granted too much power to the crown. It suited not the English ministry, because it gave too little; and it was mutually rejected.

Thus was tested that inherent difference of opinion, between the colonies and mother country, on matters of government, which eventually severed them. The course of history has led us to remark from what quarters the opposition to arbitrary power had originated in Europe. It is curious to observe that it was precisely from those

Causes of the Amer-  
ican spirit.

quarters that these colonies were originally peopled. It was when the arbitrary proceedings of James I. and Charles I. had roused the virtuous patriots of England to assert their rights, that some of the purest of these patriots, unwilling to make disturbance in their native land, and yet

\* This was the direct cause of the war; but the English jealousy was besides awakened by finding a line of posts extending from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to that of the Mississippi, projected by the French, which, if completed, would establish their authority over the valley of the Mississippi, which they called New France.



determined to enjoy their civil and religious rights, leaving the scenes endeared by kindred faces, and fond recollections; and, braving the ocean, found a home on the rude coasts of New England. It was while the brave Dutch were resisting the tyranny of Spain, and nobly contending for liberty, that *they* came and settled on the banks of the beautiful Hudson; and it was when the protestants of France strove for freedom from the civil oppressions, and religious persecutions of the Guises and Bourbons, that *they* made settlements in the south;\* and it was when episcopacy took, in England, the rod of persecution from the catholics, in the days of Charles I., that the peaceful Calvert, (lord Baltimore) with a colony of catholics, came and found a refuge, where the fair city which bears his name now stands.

Arrived in America, almost every man was, till the time of which we speak, an agriculturist; not poor, for he lived on his own domain, and acknowledged no other lord of his land, than the Lord of the whole earth; yet he was obliged to be industrious to live, to be watchful and valiant, to escape the terrible savages who ambushed his path and his dwelling. It was thus that the infant principles of manly independence, first found a home in America; and such was the school in which they were trained to a vigorous maturity. The court of Great Britain had, on various occasions, seen them manifested, much to their annoyance. They had allowed at first, without suspicion of the consequences, the free, and equal citizens of the new world to form confederacies. The offices of the country were not then marks for ambition, but posts of difficulty and danger; reluctantly, in most instances, accepted, and gladly relinquished.

At length, under James II., the court of Great Britain, grown jealous, interfered, and sent over colonial governors, enjoining it upon the colonies to compensate their services. This was a source of disaffection; but the colonies proportioning their bounty to the royal officers, to their own opinion of their good behaviour, still ordered their affairs much in their own way; and the court found they had yet done nothing towards humbling their independent bearing.

They next instructed their governors to demand fixed salaries. This, the unyielding spirit of the colonial assemblies would never grant. Massachusetts became peculiarly obnoxious to the British government, for a long and obstinate adherence to the refusal.

## SECTION II.

Such was the character of the men who met at Albany, in July, 1754; and it could hardly have been expected, that even the pressure of a coming war with a formidable power, which they knew would let loose an exterminating savage foe, would have induced

\* "The Lord," says one of the writers of that period, "has sifted three nations, for good seed to sow the wilderness."

them to frame a government acceptable to the court of Great Britain. That nation, however, felt that the colonies were her own; and her pride was wounded by the aggressions of the French; and she determined not only to allow them to manage for their defence, by such means as they chose, but to send them aid. General Braddock was accordingly despatched to Virginia with 1500 men. These, reinforced by the colonial militia, under Washington, proceeded through the desert to attack fort Du Quesne. The weak and haughty general, rejecting all advice from the colonial commander, fell into an ambush, and was slaughtered with more than half his army. The colonists alone retreated in order from the field, under the conduct of the calm, and intrepid young Washington.

1775.

Braddock defeated.

In the meantime, the French had sent out the baron Dieskau, with a formidable force, to the assistance of the Canadians.

Dieskau had advanced from Montreal by the way of Lake Champlain and Lake George, to attack fort Edward, on the Hudson. Here the colonial forces, under general Johnson, met, and defeated his army, with the loss of 700 killed, and 800 prisoners, among whom was Dieskau himself.

Defeat of Dieskau  
at Fort Edward.

These warlike operations in America, led to the declaration of war between France and Great Britain, which was formally promulgated in 1756. During the campaign of this year, little was effected, though the two powers continued to send over officers and men, and there was much bustle, and many plans among the colonists.

1756.

Formal Declaration  
of war between  
Great Britain  
and France.

The year 1757 was signalized by the barbarous massacre at fort William Henry, at the southern extremity of Lake George. Colonel Monroe, a British officer, was besieged in this fort, by the marquis Montcalm, who had succeeded Dieskau, and was now at the head of 9,000 men. Monroe capitulated, on condition of leaving the fort with the honours of war. He had not yet even left it, when the massacre was begun by the Indians in Montcalm's army, whom he could not, or would not restrain. No pen can describe the horrors of this midnight butchery, where the sick, the wounded, men, women, and infants, all bled beneath the tomahawk and the scalping-knife; in the fort, on the way, and in the woods.

1757.

Massacre of Fort  
William Henry.

George II. of England, now aroused in earnest, and blaming his former cabinet for the languid manner in which the war had been conducted, raised William Pitt to the office of prime minister, a man who, for the energy of his mind and character, surpassed all his cotemporaries. He sent out in a fleet, commanded by admiral Boscawen, a reinforcement of 14,000 men, under the command of general Amherst. These, together with the British and colonial forces already in America, made 50,000 men, a much greater army than had before been employed in this country.

1758.

Large reinforce-  
ments sent out.

Admiral Boscawen, with a fleet of twelve ships of the line, and 145 transports, invested Louisburg, a strong and important fortress on an island at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The siege commenced on the second of June. On the twenty-first

Louisburg taken. of July, Louisburg capitulated, and the English took nearly 7000 prisoners. The other important events of this campaign, were the taking of fort Frontenac, by Colonel Bradstreet, and that of fort Du Quesne, by general Forbes. This fort received at this time, the name of Pitt, which is still preserved in that of Pittsburg, the appellation of the flourishing town which occupies its situation.

During the campaign of this year, General Amherst led an army against Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and succeeded in capturing these forts. General Prideaux with another division of the British forces, was sent against fort Niagara, which also surrendered to the British arms.

1759.

Ticonderoga,  
Crown Point and  
Fort Niagara taken.

But the most critical part was assigned to the young and gallant Wolfe. He sailed from Louisburg near the close of June, and with an army of 8,000 men, landed on the island of Orleans, with the formidable task before him, of reducing Quebec, the strongest fortress in America. Till the first of September, he played around his game, formed plans and found them impracticable; and though his health declined, still laying others. On the night of the twelfth September, he scaled the heights of Abraham, a rock deemed inaccessible, and his army following their daring leader;—the marquis Montcalm saw, by the morning light, his enemy upon the elevated plain in order of battle. The strife was desperate, but victory declared for the English. Wolfe, mortally wounded, rejoiced in his country's success, and expired. Montcalm was also killed. The garrison of Quebec were panic-struck, and surrendered a fortress which they might probably have still defended. All Canada soon submitted to the British arms. The possession of this territory was confirmed to that nation, at the peace of Paris, in 1763, and since that time, has remained a British province.

1759.

French defeated before  
Quebec.—Wolfe  
killed.

## CHAPTER IV.

### PARTITION OF POLAND.

Individuals may ever be found, even in despotic countries, imbibed with a deep sense of that rational liberty, which is the birth-right of man. Of these, ill-fated Poland has furnished a large share. Its government was that of an elective monarchy, but the spirit of republicanism pervaded the hearts of many of the subjects. The election of a monarch was often a stormy period, and not unfrequent.

ly, as we have seen, made so by the interference and arms of foreign powers. Augustus III., elector of Saxony, who now filled the throne, had triumphed over Stanislaus Leczinski, by the aid of Russian and Austrian arms. Still there existed in Poland a powerful party which deprecated foreign influence, and desired a Polander for their monarch.

On the death of Augustus, Catharine of Russia turned this sentiment to the advantage of Stanislaus Poniatowski,

1764.

Catharine forces the Poles to elect Stanislaus Poniatowski.

a native, whose personal appearance and prepossessing manners, had procured for him her favour; but whose character and habits wholly unfitted him for government. He having been proposed by the empress, to fill the Polish throne, Russian soldiers, intending to enforce his election, surrounded the senate house where the diet was assembled. Malachowski, an aged patriot, and marshal of the last diet, entering the assembly, where only eight senators out of fifty appeared, exclaimed with a loud voice, "since the Russian soldiers hem us in, I suspend the authority of the diet." The soldiers ordered him to resign the marshal's staff, and threatened him with vengeance. Malachowski intrepidly replied, "You may cut off my hand, or take my life, but I am marshal, elected by a free people, and I can only be deposed by a free people—I shall retire." The partisans of Poniatowski, supported by the Russian arms, proceeded to an illegal election, and the minion of Catharine was made king. After the coronation, she maintained an ambassador at Warsaw, who in reality governed the monarch; 20,000 Russian troops being scattered over the country.

The patriots who left Warsaw before the election, had attempted to form confederations in different provinces of the kingdom. They were now permitted to return, and did not immediately offer any opposition to the government. The favour of Catharine was shortly withdrawn from the king of Poland, whose place at Petersburg had been soon filled with another favourite. She fomented the dissensions which existed between the dissidents (or protestants,) and catholics, until the unhappy nation was involved in the miseries of a civil war. The leading patriots were now arrested by the Russian soldiers, and transported to Siberia. Catharine offered them liberty on condition of their submitting to the authority of Russia. They all rejected the disgraceful offer with contempt.

The Poles next formed combinations for the deliverance of their country, and solicited and obtained the aid of the Turks.

The Russians formed extensive plans of carrying on the war with Turkey by sea. Their fleet sailed through the

1769.

Turks in alliance with the Poles, invaded by the Russians.

Mediterranean, and roused the Greeks to arms, but owing to dissensions among their commanders, nothing decisive was effected. Two Russian armies entered the Turkish dominions from the north, and made a victorious campaign; one army defeated the Turks on the banks of the Danube, and the other made the conquest of Bender, on the Dniester. These events were discouraging to the Poles, but

they still clung to the hope of preserving their liberty. Their army did not at this time exceed 8,000 men, but they had seized the strongest posts among the mountains, and, under their general Pulaski, kept the field, and occasionally annoyed their enemy. In the following year, the advantages of war still remained with the Russians. A short period of alternate hope and fear was all that was now allowed for the little band of Polish patriots.

1770.

Scandalous partition  
of Poland.

They were soon informed that a league had been concluded between Maria Theresa of Austria, Catharine of Russia, and Frederic of Prussia ; and that these royal thieves had taken the greater part of their country, and divided it among themselves, annexing their several portions to their own dominions. The contemptible Poniatowski, who was entirely under their control, was by them made sovereign of the remainder.

Some of the Poles had still the courage to raise their voices against these iniquitous proceedings. The patriot Reyten, finding that all was lost, was driven by grief to insanity. A few sent formal protestations to the other powers of Europe, but their remonstrances were unheeded. The patriot chiefs were obliged to flee to foreign lands. Pulaski crossed the ocean and sacrificed his life in the cause of American independence.

The partition of Poland has found no justifiers even among those who have considered the many wars in which Europe has been involved, as being defensible, on the ground of maintaining the balance of power ; a phrase which in its real signification, as settled by the practices which have grown out of it, seems to mean a combination of a few families, to maintain each other in their hereditary authority, whether that authority be exercised for the good of mankind, or for their scourge and destruction ; thus making Europe a grand aristocracy, the members of which are called kings instead of nobles, each ambitious to extend his own dominions, by encroaching on those of his neighbours, and thus creating disputes, which there was no organized and acknowledged council with powers to settle, and causing continually the barbarous appeal to the sword. The great plan of Henry IV. of France, had it been established, would not, like the American constitution, have guarantied to the people their rights of self-government, but it would have given them much security against the horrors of war, and saved the blood of countless millions.

## CHAPTER V.

## GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES, FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS, 1763, TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, 1776.

The close of the seven years' war, which was ended by the peace of Paris, left Great Britain the most powerful and influential kingdom in Europe. The resources of the nation became more extensively developed; she had full possession of the dominion of the sea, trade and manufactures greatly flourished, labour rose in value, and in less than twelve years, the national debt had been diminished more than ten millions sterling. Such was the condition of this nation, when her rulers commenced that disastrous course of measures which ended in the partial dismemberment of the empire, by the loss of the American colonies. The English provinces in America had claimed for their own legislative assemblies the right of granting their own taxes and contributions for the support of government. They believed this right to be secured to them by the English constitution, as well as by their own local charters. When, therefore, the British

1763.  
Prosperity of Eng-  
land.

parliament passed an act for raising a revenue in America, by imposing duties on merchandise imported, and which was followed up from year to year by new and greater exactions; the Americans prepared for resistance. The friends of English liberty and the constitution, in Great Britain, took sides with the Americans, and encouraged their spirit. Pitt, now earl of Chatham,

1764.  
Americans refuse to  
be taxed by par-  
liament.

unwilling any longer to be responsible for measures which he could neither approve nor control, resigned his office of prime minister. The duke of Grafton was called to succeed him. This minister was found incompetent to the duties of his station, and his place was filled by lord North. Under the unfortunate administration of this nobleman, it was resolved to force the Americans to submit to the unconstitutional acts of the British parliament.

1768.  
Lord Chatham  
resigns.

Governor Gage had been sent to Massachusetts in the spirit of hostility to that province. The people viewed his movements with jealousy and alarm; mutual animosity was enkindled, martial law was declared, and it was in an attempt of the British troops to take possession of the magazines at Lexington, that hostilities commenced and the first blood was shed. The militia rose, and although they could not prevent the destruction of the public stores, yet drove the British back to their strong holds in Boston, with loss.

1775.  
Gage sent over to  
enforce the taxation  
laws.

The rash and violent measures of the British ministry with regard to America, were loudly condemned by the friends of English

liberty in Great Britain, who remonstrated with energy against the war. But the ministry, nevertheless, pursued their measures; armies were raised, foreign troops, Hessians and others were hired, fleets put in readiness, and veteran generals, Howe, Pigot, Clinton, Burgoyne, and many others, were sent over to conquer the spirit of the Americans, and quell their resistance. In America, great men arose, able to meet the crisis. Hancock, Adams, Henry, and many others, by their speeches and writings, infused their own spirit into the hearts of the people; and "Give me liberty, or give me death," was the general sentiment.

In this spirit of resistance to oppression, the first continental congress assembled at Philadelphia. Measures were taken to raise an efficient army, the command of which was placed in the hands of Washington.

1774.

First American Congress.

In the meantime the militia of the New England provinces volunteered to drive the British troops from Boston. They took possession of Bunker Hill, a position which commanded the town. As soon as they were perceived, the British general, Howe, determined to drive them from the entrenchments which they were throwing up. Under cover of the fire of their ships, lying in the harbour, and of the flames of the town of Charlestown, barbarously set on fire for that purpose, three thousand of the British troops ascended the hill, and a deadly conflict ensued. The advancing columns were broken by the fire from the American line, and twice, amidst appalling carnage, they rallied to the charge. At length, the brave Warren having fallen, and their ammunition failing, the Americans retired, leaving one thousand and fifty-four of their enemies dead or dying upon the field, their own loss amounting to 450 killed and wounded.

Battle of Bunker Hill.

Unsuccessful attempt upon Canada.

The Americans, having thus commenced the conflict, prepared to pursue it with effect. Generals Montgomery and Arnold were despatched at the head of separate armies for the conquest of Canada. Montreal, and the fortress of St. John, surrendered to Montgomery. Advancing down the St. Lawrence, at Quebec, he met Arnold, who had taken the direct route through the woods. Late in the winter their joint forces attacked that fortress, and the brave Montgomery fell. Washington, at the head of a formidable force, had the preceding season appeared before Boston, taken possession of the adjacent heights, and invested the British forces in that city.

1776.

Washington invests Boston.

He continued the siege through the winter, and on the 19th of March, Howe was forced to evacuate the fort. The enemy, taking to their shipping, commenced a marauding warfare, and burnt Falmouth, Bristol, and other towns, on the sea-board. Washington entered Boston in triumph, but afterwards established his head quarters at New York, stationing part of the army, under generals Putnam and Sullivan, at Brooklyn.

## PERIOD VII.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Declaration of { SIXTH EPOCH, 1776 A. D. } American  
Independence.

TO THE

Peace of { SEVENTH EPOCH, 1802 A. D. } Amiens.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### REPUBLIC OF AMERICA AFTER THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

The 4th of July, 1776, is the birth day of a nation remarkable for being the oldest civilized nation of the western continent, for the extent of its territory, for the rapid increase of its population and resources; but more especially for its political institutions, which have exhibited, in practice, those principles of natural justice, and equal rights, heretofore regarded but as the visions of the enthusiast. On that memorable day, the American congress, still environed with difficulties, took with solemnity, the bold measure of declaring that "America was, and of right ought to be, **FREE and INDEPENDENT**."

The most disastrous scenes of the war followed hard upon this declaration. That division of the army commanded by Sullivan, on Long Island, was surprised and defeated with great loss. Washington, threatened in New York, retreated into the interior. The British generals, Howe and Clinton, followed him to the White Plains, where an indecisive engagement took place. But at Fort Mifflin, which was commanded by Col. Mifflin, the British prevailed, took the fort and 2,000 prisoners. The garrison of Fort Mifflin evacuated that post, and, under Greene, joined the desponding army of Washington, who now crossed the Hudson, and retreated into New Jersey. He there placed himself in a defensive position, waiting for recruits and supplies. His forces were greatly reduced, and in want of almost every thing necessary for a winter's campaign; and he continued to retreat till he had crossed the Delaware.

1776.

Misfortunes of the  
American army.



Nevertheless, he watched his enemy with great vigilance. On the 26th of December, he re-crossed the Delaware, which the severity of the season, and the ice floating in the river, made an enterprize of almost incredible hardship and difficulty. He attacked 1,000 Hessians,

Washington's suc-  
cess at Trenton and  
Princeton.

stationed at Trenton, and made them prisoners; after which, with great skill and intrepidity, he eluded the pursuit of a superior British force, and fell upon, and surprised another division of the enemy stationed at Princeton. These brilliant successes, following such a train of misfortunes, like a sudden light amidst darkness, revived the drooping spirits of the

Americans. They were cheered, also, by the arrival of the young and generous La Fayette, who had left, in France, all that, to an ordinary mind, makes existence desirable, and brought to lay upon the altar of right and justice, his life and fortune.

La Fayette.

France, Spain, and Holland, now began to regard the cause of America with more favour; and negociations were commenced with these powers. But success again seemed to follow

1777.

Howe successful.

Burgoyne invades  
the north.

the British arms. Howe defeated Washington at Brandywine, on the 11th of September, and entered Philadelphia on the 26th. He was again successful at Germantown, on the 4th of October. Burgoyne, with a formidable army, made up of British regulars, and their Indian and Hessian allies, had made a descent from Canada. He opened a communication upon Lake Champlain, and invested Ticonderoga. This fortress, the key of that frontier, fell into his hands. General Fraser was dispatched in pursuit of the flying Americans. He came up with their rear guard at Hubbardton, and after a sanguinary conflict, the British obtained their last victory in that quarter.

Shortly after this battle, Colonels Baum and Breyman were detached by Burgoyne, with a corps of Hessians, in search of provisions, and ordered to advance upon Bennington. They were met near that place by Gen. Stark, and totally defeated. After encountering severe losses and great hardships, Burgoyne arrived at Stillwater, upon

Americans defeat the  
British at Benning-  
ton and Stillwater.

the Hudson. He had but just heard of his disaster at Bennington, when he was met and defeated by a numerous and well appointed army of Americans, under the command of the dauntless Gates. The British general now found retreat impossible, and on the 7th of October, he was compelled to surrender his whole army prisoners of war. This expedition cost the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners,

1778.

Treaty with France.

an army of 9,000 men. It inspired the Americans, and disposed the European nations to favour their cause, and a treaty of alliance with France was entered into on the 6th of February.

Washington was now better able to concentrate his forces. Strengthened by reinforcements, he compelled Sir Henry Clinton to evacuate Philadelphia; and, pursuing that general on his retreat, came up with him on the 4th of June, and defeated him at Monmouth.

Battle of Monmouth.

General Gates being sent to stop the progress of the British army in the South, was defeated, at Camden, by Lord Cornwallis, and the brave baron De Kalb, a German volunteer in the American army, was slain. After this disaster, General Greene was appointed to the command of the southern armies. At Guilford, he gallantly contended with Cornwallis, and, though not victorious, retired from the field in good order. Cornwallis having been weakened by this and his other battles, though successful, felt in no condition to make further advances, but retreated to the sea board.\*

1780.

Gates defeated at  
Camden.

After the retreat of lord Cornwallis into Virginia, lord Rawdon was left to sustain the royal cause, now on the decline, in Carolina. Becoming at length discouraged with fatigue and loss of health, he returned to England, and the command of the British forces, in South Carolina, devolved on Col. Stuart. General Greene, in the mean time, having improved the discipline of his troops, sought the enemy, and fought and defeated them at Eutaw Springs. The British general retreated to Charleston, and confined his operations to that vicinity.

1781.

Battle of the Eutaw  
Springs.

On leaving the Carolinas, lord Cornwallis entered Virginia, threatening chastisement to "the boy," as he termed La Fayette, who commanded the small body of American forces assigned for the defence of that state. But that general showed himself a veteran in carnage and skill, not only studying the pursuit of the British general, but finding means to harass his outposts incessantly, and to hold him in check, until the plans forming by Washington for his destruction, should be matured. These plans were now ready for development.

Cornwallis checked  
by La Fayette.Washington plans  
the capture of  
Cornwallis.

Washington had, by a well managed feint, deceived Sir Henry Clinton into the belief that New York was the designated point of attack. Admiral De Grasse, with a formidable French fleet, was ordered to block up York river, so as to prevent reinforcements reaching Cornwallis, through the Chesapeake. In the mean time, the American commander, having formed a junction with the French army, which had arrived the year before, under general Rochambeau, by forced marches, suddenly arrived at Yorktown, and invested the British army by land. The brave and hitherto fortunate Cornwallis now made vigorous efforts to extricate himself, but in vain. The chivalry of America and France were upon him, each vying with the other in feats of intrepidity. The British general had sustained himself in the belief that timely succour would arrive from New York. Even this hope now failed him; and to prevent a general assault from

\* This was the period of the celebrated siege and defence of Gibraltar. Spain having entered into the war against England, her earliest efforts were made for the recovery of that fortress. The Spaniards commenced a tremendous cannonade, and continued it for several months. But the place was successfully defended by the bravery and skill of General Elliot.

1781. the combined French and American armies, he offered terms of capitulation. On the 19th of October, 1781, the army, consisting of seven thousand men, surrendered to the Americans, and the fleet, consisting of two frigates and twenty transports, with their convoys, to the French.

Cornwallis surrenders.

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## CHAPTER II.

### ENGLAND AND INDIA.

Thus ended the active operations of the most disastrous war in which England was ever engaged. That power even for a time lost her wonted ascendancy on the ocean. The fleets of France and Spain sustained themselves with bravery, in many conflicts; and the province of West Florida, which Great Britain had captured in a former war from Spain, was re-taken by that power.

In the East Indies, the arms of England had been more successful. Sir Eyre Coote, the British commander in that quarter, overthrew the power of Hyder Ali, and obtained large cessions of territory from the Indian princes.

A war so generally unsuccessful and disastrous, drew upon the English ministry a large share of public odium. They were assailed by the public press, and by the people at large, and in parliament; and at last they were compelled to resign. A new ministry was formed, of men favourable to American Independence, which was finally secured by the treaty of Paris, Sept. 3d, 1783. By this treaty, Great Britain lost the islands of Tobago and Senegal, ceded to France. Minorca and Florida, ceded to Spain; and the United States of America, made independent, together with thousands of valuable lives, and millions of treasure, and gained nothing.

The British armies having been withdrawn, those of the United States were disbanded, and Washington consummated his glory by voluntarily retiring to the shades of private life.

1783. Army disbanded. Washington retires.

## CHAPTER III.

## GREAT BRITAIN.

England and Scotland, since the wars of the pretender, had enjoyed domestic tranquillity. George III., though not an able statesman, was a pious, amiable, and charitable man, affectionate and kind, as a sovereign, a husband, and a father. In his reign were no cruel executions for political offences. In its early part, his ministers were frequently changed, and among them was no prominent statesman, after

1789.

William Pitt

the elder Pitt, Lord Chatham, until in 1784, the younger William Pitt, his second son, was made prime minister. He filled the station more than twenty years, and his talents, guiding the energies of the kingdom, greatly influenced the politics of Europe. The great evil under which the nation suffered, was the public debt, to pay the interest of which, the people were grievously taxed. The policy of Pitt, by interfering with the affairs of France, and involving England in a war, to restore the Bourbons, greatly increased this evil.

The affairs of the East Indies claimed much attention from the parliament. In the wars with Hyder Ali, and other native princes, the most unheard of exactions and devastations had been committed upon that weak and effeminate people. Tracts of country of hundreds of miles in extent, had not only been plundered, but entirely depopulated. Acts

British cruelties in  
India.

of rapine and barbarity had been practiced there, which find no parallel in history. Warren Hastings, the governor general of British India, was impeached by the British house of commons, and brought to trial for numerous acts of oppression and tyranny upon the people of India, subject to his government. After an investigation of nearly eight years duration, in which the best talents of the kingdom were engaged, he was acquitted.

Warren Hastings.

Causes which had long been in operation—the abuse of power by the rulers on the one hand, and the progress of liberal opinions among the people, on the other, began, at this period, to produce the most astonishing effects. The French revolution commenced, which, in its progress, astonished not only France, but all Europe, with the prodigious energies of a people rising in their might, and struggling to obtain their liberty.

1789.

Effects of the French  
Revolution upon  
English politics.

The celebrated Burke, who had been, until this time, one of the most distinguished advocates for liberal opinions in the British parliament, now came forward in that body and condemned the principles of the French in the most unqualified terms. For this, he was applauded by the ministerial side of the house. Fox and Sheridan,

who had heretofore acted in concert with Burke, while they condemned the outrages that had attended the French revolution, defended its principles. These differences of opinion spread through the kingdom, and parties arrayed themselves against each other, in a spirit of unusual acrimony. At first, public sentiment was strong in favour of the new order of things in France, but the bold and unusual proceedings of the leading men there, together with the threats of French invasion, stirred up the ancient English spirit, and the nation resorted to war.

In this contest, in which all the principal states of Europe became engaged, France was the most prominent actor ; and as her history, for a time, involved that of all the rest, we shall commence it with a short retrospective view.

## CHAPTER IV.

### THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

#### SECTION I.

'The nations who had been engaged in the "Seven Years' War," found themselves, at its termination, suffering under the burden of grievous taxes. England had indeed largely extended her American possessions ; and Prussia, though at the expense of a vast amount of suffering, and loss of life, had established her dominion over Silesia. The aggrandizement of Prussia had been the humiliation of Austria.

1763.

European nations at  
the close of the  
"Seven Years'  
War."

But of all the nations, France had suffered the most severely, and was, at the close of the contest, in a state of the most lamentable depression. The evils of the long continued wars in which the nation had been engaged during the reigns of Louis XIV. and XV., had now become fully developed. The finances of the kingdom were in a state of irretrievable disorder and confusion. The reign of Louis XV. is signalized, even in the French annals, for profligacy and corruption. The licentious monarch suffered his councils to be guided by abandoned women—the treasures of his suffering people were lavished at their bidding, and offices disposed of as their avarice or caprice dictated.

The marriage of the dauphin with the arch-duchess of Austria, Marie Antoinette, was celebrated with great pomp, and for a time withdrew the minds of the people from the sense of their sufferings. But, oppressed by taxation, subjected to arbitrary imprisonment, and now, from the high price of corn, (there having been a failure of crops,) threatened with famine, they expressed their dis-

1770.

Marriage of  
Louis XVI. and  
Marie Antoinette.

1772.

Death of Louis XV.

satisfaction, by murmurs and insurrections. Such was the disturbed state of France, when the long and inglorious reign of Louis XV.\* was closed by his death.

Upon the unfortunate Louis XVI., who now succeeded to the throne, the evils which had been long accumulating, burst in a tempest. The parliament of Paris had acquired power, and now exhibited a determined opposition to the court. The middle class had become enlightened, but many of them had unfortunately imbibed opinions hostile to religion and morality.

France at the accession of Louis XVI.

The American revolution was now in progress, and Franklin was received and honoured at the court of Louis. The principles of rational liberty, which the American patriots advocated, were embraced even by some among the nobility. La Fayette and others risked their lives and fortunes, and left their country to aid them in their struggle. France, at length, though she could ill afford it, gave the national support to America, and thus became involved in a war with Great Britain.

1778.

France makes a treaty with America.

Louis, meantime, was making fruitless attempts to improve his finances, and ameliorate the condition of the people. The national debt amounted to the enormous sum of six hundred millions of livres. The minister, Calonne, in order to relieve the government of its embarrassments, proposed to levy a tax upon the privileged orders, and to avoid assembling the states general, a measure loudly demanded by the nation, he convened the Notables, an assembly selected from the higher classes. This assembly, however, proved unmanageable, and spread through the nation the discoveries which they had made of the wretched situation and mismanagement of the government.

The Notables convened.

1789.

States general convened at Versailles.

On the fifth of May, 1789, the king, by the advice of Neckar, who was now in the ministry, having convoked the states general and their deputies, met at Versailles. When assembled, the change which the public sentiment had undergone since the last meeting, in 1614, was soon apparent. The commons, or third estate, who in former times had been governed by the two other orders, (the clergy and noblesse,) now manifested an independent spirit. The higher orders in vain appealed to the assemblies of other days for precedents. The power of the third estate was here paramount. The king threatened to dissolve the assembly, but the deputies remained immovable. Louis had dismissed Neckar, and under the influence of a new minister, he ordered troops to advance towards Versailles and Paris, these places having declared for the assembly. The French guards espoused the cause of the assembly, and all Paris flew to arms. Neckar was recalled, but too late. The

\* He died of the small pox, the second time taken.

1789.

Bastille destroyed.

La Fayette com-  
mander of the  
national guards.

armed citizens assembled at the Bastille, and that gloomy prison, where so many innocent victims of royal caprice and tyranny have been immured, was levelled with the ground. Two days after this event, La Fayette was made commander of the national guards.

The assembly and the court were meantime engaged at Versailles, each in preparing and maturing its own plans. The assembly demanded the dismissal of the foreign troops. The court retained them. When Louis was informed of the cause of the excitement and agitation, which his minister had carefully concealed from him, he visited the assembly, threw himself upon its protection, and ordered the retreat of the troops. He next visited Paris, where he was received with demonstrations of attachment, and he strengthened the favourable impressions of the citizens, by confirming the appointments made by the assembly. The king and royal family gave a splendid fête at Versailles, on the first day of October. On the morning of the fifth, a multitude of women in Paris, pressed by famine, rose and set up the cry of bread! bread! and demanded to be led to Ver-

Disturbances of the  
5th of October.

sailles. The rising soon became general, arms were seized, and the national and French guards determined to accompany the mob to Versailles. The utmost that La Fayette could do, was to delay their departure a few hours. Finding that they would go, he conducted them, and restrained their excesses.\* The king and royal family removed to Paris, the national assembly followed, and its presence, with the exertions of La Fayette, for a time calmed the tumults of the populace, and restored a temporary quiet to the city.

## SECTION II.

The assembly, at the head of which was Mirabeau, proceeded to make a constitution and reform abuses. The re-

1790.

The national assem-  
bly form a constitu-  
tion.

mains of the old feudal system were cleared away; the lands belonging to the religious houses were converted to the use of the nation, the monks and nuns were turned out of their convents, and the estates of those who fled from France on the repeal of the edict of Nantes, were ordered to be restored.

\* The women went first. The crowd surrounded the palace. The king appeared, and gratified them by promising to go to Paris. The queen was menaced during the day, but at evening, though the mob were at Versailles, all seemed quiet. During the last hours of the night, some of the more violent found an unguarded entrance into the palace, sought her apartment, and would have murdered her, had she not escaped to another. La Fayette was informed of these disorders, and would have prevented them, had he been permitted to station guards within the palace. He threw himself among the infuriated mob, and saved the body guard, whom they were about to massacre. He next sought the queen—persuaded her to go with him to the balcony, where, to make the people understand his meaning, he bowed to her, and kissed her hand with profound respect, and the multitude shouted “Vive la Reine.”

But while the assembly was going on with the work of reformation, and labouring to complete the constitution, (Louis meantime assenting to their acts,) counter movements were in operation in various parts of the kingdom. Marie Antoinette, neither loved nor trusted the French people. While this beautiful and accomplished woman was the idol of the court, she was censured by the

Unpopularity and  
designs of the  
queen.

nation for her extravagance and levity, and charged with more crimes than she had committed. The true daughter of Maria Theresa, if left to herself, she would have opposed the tide of revolution by more energetic measures; but she and her party now saw that it had become too strong for them to cope with, and they were desirous to escape. Emigrations became frequent, and the nobility who left the kingdom, sought to obtain assistance from abroad, while the catholic clergy were seeking at home to destroy the new order of things.

On the other hand, clubs were formed, among which was that of the Jacobins, who stirred up the people to censure the measures of the new government, as too moderate, and too lenient to the principles of monarchy.

Clubs.

Meantime the crowned heads of Europe, alarmed at the prevalence of principles which tended to disorganize their own states, now threatened to interfere for the purpose of restoring the authority of Louis, and thus became indirectly the cause of his future sufferings.

1791.

Royal family  
attempt to escape.

Persuaded by his queen, Louis left Paris secretly, with his family; intending to quit the kingdom. Incensed at this mark of distrust, and apparent intention of joining those who had become their enemies, the people pursued and arrested the royal fugitives at Varennes, and carried them back to the capital. Paris was now a scene of tumult and uproar, and the whole kingdom was convulsed. In the assembly, violent discussions arose. Some maintained that Louis had by his flight abdicated the throne, and the more violent demanded his immediate execution.

1791.

Constituent assembly dissolved—  
Legislative, convened.

The new constitution being completed, September 29th, 1791, the constituent assembly declared its business accomplished, and dissolved. A legislative assembly convened October 14th. Roland was now minister of the interior, and Dumourier for foreign affairs.

On the 20th of March, the assembly declared war against Francis II., emperor of Austria, who had demanded imperatively the restoration of the old order of things, and was evidently preparing to enforce his demand by the sword.

1792.

War declared  
against Austria.

Marechal Rochambeau, La Fayette, and Lucknor, commanded the French armies; but after an unsuccessful invasion of Belgium, then under the Austrian yoke, their operations became merely defensive. Their want of success is ascribed to the malignant influence of the parties in the



La Fayette in favour  
of a constitutional  
monarchy.

army which were opposed to the government. La Fayette was at the head of that in favour of a constitutional monarchy. He wrote to the national assembly, and at length, leaving the army, he appeared suddenly at the bar of the house. He conjured the members to respect the constitution, and warned them of the danger arising from the Jacobin chiefs. He now appealed to the national guards, by whom he was greatly beloved. The court, which he wished to save, unhappily distrusted him ; and thus themselves defeated his measures for their preservation, and La Fayette returned in despair to the army.

Prussia had joined Austria, and a Prussian army now advanced upon the frontiers of France. A violent and imprudent manifesto, published by its commander, the duke of Brunswick, in the name of the emperor of Russia, and the king of Spain, hastened the fall of the French throne.

On the night preceding the tenth of August, all was uproar in Paris. The tocsin was sounded, the drums beat, and the insurgents assembled in arms. Having organized and united their forces, early in the morning they besieged the palace. Louis with his family crossed the garden of the Tuileries, entered the house of deputies, and threw himself upon the protection of the national assembly. After the king left the palace, the riotous insurgents massacred the Swiss guards, proceeded to surround the assembly, which, yielding to their demands, passed a vote to dethrone the king. The Luxembourg was first assigned him as his residence ; thence he was transferred a prisoner, to the temple.

1792.

Louis escapes from  
the Tuileries, to the  
house of deputies.

Louis dethroned and  
imprisoned.

After these events, La Fayette, ever true to constitutional liberty, seeing that it could no longer be maintained, attempted, with four of his friends, to escape to America ; but they were made prisoners by the Austrians, and contrary to the laws of nations, confined for four years in the dreary dungeons of Olmutz.

1792.

La Fayette made  
prisoner.

France was now divided into violent parties, whose animosity was daily increasing. Besides the Royalists, there were the Constitution-  
Parties and factions. alists, and the Jacobins ; and the latter were again divided into the Girondists, (led by Brissot and Pétion,) now most powerful, and the bloody Mountain faction, whose leaders, Danton, Robespierre, and Marat, are so well known in the history of crime.

The Prussians, who had advanced upon the frontier, now invaded the kingdom, and made themselves masters of Longwy and Verdun.

1792.

Massacre of the roy-  
alists.

The commune of Paris, when informed of the capture of Verdun, gave orders for the general massacre of the royalists. About three hundred murderers were employed in the horrid service, and three days were devoted to the inhuman butchery. The assembly and the ministry, attempted in vain to arrest the massacre : the soldiers who guarded the prisons were unable to afford their unhappy prison-

ers relief. The regal power was declared to be abolished, and a republic established. Meanwhile the contests in the assembly between the factions of the Gironde and the Mountain, became more violent : the former reprobated the massacre of the royalists, and attempted to bring the perpetrators to justice ; the latter, many of whom had authorised the deed, now justified it : the former wished to save the life of the unhappy Louis, the latter were bent upon his destruction, and that of all parties and persons who were opposed to their own violent measures. Louis was tried, condemned, and on the twenty-first of January, the axe of the guillotine severed his head from his body.

Louis brought to the guillotine.

### SECTION III.

The execution of the king, while it rendered the parties in France irreconcilable, called down upon the nation the vengeance of Europe, and in the event produced those long and sanguinary wars which convulsed the continent. England recalled her ambassador, and declared war. Holland and Spain also joined the "Coalition," and the new Republic was threatened in every direction.

Before the trial of Louis, Dumourier had been placed at the head of the French armies, and sent against the Prussians. At Valney, he obtained some advantages, and the Prussians retreated. The French next recovered Verdun and Longwy, and finally achieved the conquest of Belgium. Dumourier now invaded Holland, took Breda and Gertruydenberg, but was recalled to the command in Belgium, where the Austrians had obtained some advantage. He hazarded a general engagement at Neer-Winden, but was defeated.

1798.

French take Breda.

Insurrection in La Vendée.

Mountain faction supreme.

The queen executed.

Meanwhile a formidable insurrection had taken place in La Vendée. This and other events increased the rigour of the convention, and the hatred of the parties. The Girondists were overthrown, and the Mountain faction obtained supreme authority. The once gay, and still beautiful queen, after having suffered for the necessities of life in the gloomy prison of the Conciergerie, was condemned and executed.\* The leaders of the Girondists were also put to death.

The fall of this more moderate party, was the commencement of the "reign of terror." Danton, Robespierre, and Marat, in the name of the republic, now exercised with arbitrary despotism, cruelties the most barbarous. Licenseness and profligacy walked forth unveiled : Even the forms of religion were destroyed : The Sabbath was abolished, and one day in ten set apart, not for religion, but for idleness

1794.

The reign of terror.

\* The traveller in Paris is shown a little gloomy apartment, where she was confined, and is told, that here the daughter of Maria Theresa, was glad to get a little water that she might wash her stockings.

and licentiousness. The goddess of reason, personified by a naked prostitute, was drawn in triumph through the streets of Paris; and the municipal officers of the city, and the members of the national convention of France, joined publicly in the impious parade.

Of the three despots, Marat was assassinated by Charlotte Corday, a young girl, self-devoted to the good of her country. Danton was condemned through the instrumentality of Robespierre. This atrocious man, for a time, maintained the sway alone; but at last, deserted by his associates, he was condemned by the convention, and the guillotine, which had during his reign of nearly two years, shed the innocent blood of thousands, for once let fall the stroke of justice, and delivered the earth from a ferocious monster.

The nation during this period, had maintained the foreign war. In Netherlands, the armies of the republic achieved many conquests. In Germany also, the French reduced Juliers and Cologne.

After the fall of Robespierre and his associates, the constitution was remodelled. The executive government was now entrusted to a directory, consisting of five persons. The legislative body was formed of two councils, that of the "ancients," and that of five hundred. All laws were to originate with the latter, but not to pass without the sanction of the former.

Some of the provisions of the new constitution offended the Parisians, who rose in arms. Barras, one of the directors, brought forward and placed at the head of the troops to quell the insurrection, a young Corsican officer, who had distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. This was NAPOLEON BONAPARTE, the hero of the French revolution, and the future conqueror of Europe.

1795.  
Napoleon Bonaparte.

At the commencement of the campaign of 1795, the king of Prussia had withdrawn from the coalition, and made peace with France. The king of Spain, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, shortly after imitated his example. Austria and England were now the only powers of the first rank engaged in the war.

Bonaparte, now raised through the influence of Barras to the rank of general, was this year entrusted by the directors, who meditated the reduction of Austria, with the command of the army of Italy. Moreau had the command of the army of the Sambre and Meuse, which was to press forward on the eastern frontier of Germany; and Jourdan commanded that of the Rhine. A junction of their forces was designed to take place in the centre of the Austrian dominions.

1796.  
French send three armies against Austria.

Moreau and Jourdan crossed the Rhine, and for a time success attended their arms. The Austrian generals were unable to withstand them, and all Germany was filled with consternation. The imperial forces at length united under the arch-duke Charles, against Jourdan, and defeated him. By this event, Moreau was prevented from receiving any support in that quarter, and therefore compelled to retire. His safe retreat,

Jourdan defeated.  
Moreau retreats.

made under the most embarrassing and dangerous circumstances, is considered a great military exploit.

#### SECTION IV.

Bonaparte, meanwhile, advanced into Italy, passing round the southern extremity of the Alps, and keeping near the shores of the Mediterranean. At Monte Notte, he encountered, on the fourth of April, the Austro-Sardinian army, and here obtained his first victory. On the fifteenth, he again defeated his enemy at Millesimo, and on the eighteenth at Mondovi. Thus, in less than a month, he had gained three battles, destroyed 25,000 of the enemy's forces, and made himself master of the mountain passes, and of the road to Italy.

Bonaparte now pressed forward into Italy, accomplished the passage of the Po, and on the 11th of May, 1796, attacking with desperate bravery the Austrians, at the bridge of Lodi, he forced their general, Beaulieu, to retreat upon Mantua. Milan submitted to his arms.

Those powers of Italy, heretofore neutral or interested in the Austrian cause, now sought the friendship of the conqueror.

The dukes of Parma and Modena, the grand duke of Tuscany, and even the pope, were compelled to purchase his favour, not only with money and provisions for the army, but with their boasted works of art, which were transported to Paris, to adorn the capital of the new republic. Mantua was now the only place of strength which remained to the Austrians, in Italy, and to this Bonaparte laid siege. A reinforcement of 80,000 Austrians was despatched into Italy, under the command of Wurmser. The French general, learning that the divisions of this army had unwisely been so far extended as to prevent easy communications with each other, at once left Mantua, and advancing unexpectedly, defeated one division at Londo, and another at Castiglione.

Wurmser, on learning the fate of these divisions, advanced with his main force, when victory again declared for the French. These three defeats had destroyed nearly half the Austrian army. Bonaparte now resumed the siege of Mantua, which had in the mean time received supplies of men and provisions. Wurmser, who had retreated to the Tyrol, having now been reinforced by 20,000 men, again moved towards Mantua, leaving Davidowich, one of his generals, with a strong army to guard the Tyrol. Bonaparte waited on-ly until the advance of Wurmser had entirely separated him from Davidowich, when leaving a small force to continue the siege of Mantua, he proceeded rapidly towards Roveredo, attacked the forces under Davidowich, and again defeated the Austrians. Wurmser's army were at the distance of twenty leagues. With astonishing celerity, he reached the advanced guard on the second day, and immediately attacked and de-

Bonaparte's victori-  
ous progress into It-  
aly.

1796.

Battle of Lodi.

Bonaparte sends to  
Paris Italian works  
of art.

Mantua besieged.

Austrians suffer  
three defeats.

Astonishing success  
of Bonaparte.

feated them; and the next day he obtained a decided victory over Wurmser himself, at Bassano. The Austrian general, as a last effort, now succeeded in throwing himself with the remnant of his army, reduced to 16,000 men, into Mantua. Another Austrian army, under Alvinzi, was sent into Italy to relieve that city. Bonaparte met and fought them for three days, at Arcola, when victory again declared for the French general. This closed the wonderful campaign of 1796. Of this campaign, the minister of

Report of the  
French minister of  
war.

war reported thus to the directory, "Italy has been entirely conquered—three large armies entirely destroyed—fifty stands of colours have been taken—forty thousand Austrians have laid down their arms:—all has been accomplished by an army of thirty thousand Frenchmen, commanded by a general scarce twenty-six years old."—About this time, Corsica was, by means of Bonaparte, reunited to France.

The Austrians, still determined to dispute the sovereignty of Italy, reinforced the army of Alvinzi. In his first encounter of this year, Bonaparte failed of his usual success, though he claimed the victory. But on the fourteenth of January, in a desperate battle at Rivoli, he was again victorious, and soon after, Mantua surrendered to the French.

Battle of Rivoli  
and surrender of  
Mantua.

Bonaparte, having now achieved the entire conquest of Italy, advanced towards the hereditary dominions of Austria. A sixth Austrian army was assembled under the arch-duke Charles, to guard the frontier of the empire. Bonaparte crossed the Alps, compelled the arch-duke to retreat, and subjected him to severe and repeated losses. He took the capital of Upper Styria, the principal towns of Lower, and pressed forward on the road to Vienna, whither the arch-duke retreated. The capital was in alarm, and the humbled court now consented to negotiations.\* Preliminaries were signed at Leoben, which after some modification, terminated in the treaty of Campo Formio.

Bonaparte invades  
Austria.

1797.

Peace of Campo  
Formio.

## SECTION V.

The peace between France and Austria, was concluded at the expense of Venice. Austria was to be indemnified for the renunciation of some of her possessions, by part of the Venetian territory; and an insurrection in Venice, with the murder of some of the French soldiery, during the absence of Bonaparte, afforded a pretext for the French to declare war against that republic. The constitution of Venice was changed, and a popular government established. The Austrians took possession of some of the provinces,

\* One of the conditions, made by Bonaparte, was the release of La Fayette.

and the French, the remainder, with the capital. Other changes in the ancient government of Italy were made. The Italian Republics formed. The Cisalpine Republic was formed of the duchy of Milan and several of the Italian states. The constitution of Genoa also was changed, and it received the name of the Ligurian republic. An insurrection took place in Rome, of which the French troops taking advantage, occupied the

1798. city, subverted the papal government, and established a republic. French influence also produced a revolution in Switzerland. Many of the cantons opposed a change in the constitution, but the French arms, after several battles, triumphed, and the "Helvetian republic" was established. Geneva was united to France.

While these events had been transpiring on land, the English had maintained their superiority at sea, and in successive engagements, defeated the French and their allies. British successful at sea.

The directory of France now completely victorious on the continent, but disturbed by factions and disorders at home, and perhaps unwilling to retain in Paris a general, who, like Bonaparte, possessed almost unlimited power over the troops, and of whose ambition there could be no doubt, now planned a new and singular enterprise, the conquest of Egypt. The preparations were made under pretence of an expedition against England, and the design concealed. The

1798. command of the expedition was given to Bonaparte, who embarked at Toulon for Alexandria. On his passage through the Mediterranean, he achieved the conquest of Malta, and though pursued by the British fleet, arrived in safety at the place of his destination. He ascended the Nile, fought with the Mamelukes under Murad-Bey, and near Cairo, in sight of those monuments of antiquity, gained the famous battle of the Pyramids. Battle of the Pyramids. This victory over a cavalry considered invincible, spread the terror of the French arms, not only through Egypt, but through the Mahometan dominions. Cairo surrendered, and the remnant of the Mamelukes who escaped, fled into Spain.

While the French were thus successful on land, the British were equally so on the sea. Nelson, who commanded the British fleet,

1798. followed the French to the bay of Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, where their vessels were moored, and after a bloody battle, entirely defeated and almost destroyed their fleet. This victory rendered the English masters of the Mediterranean, and placed the French army in a most perilous situation.

Learning that the Turks, who had now declared war against France, had already assembled two armies, and were advancing to the defence of Egypt, Bonaparte traversed the desert which separates Asia from Africa, and entering Palestine, defeated another body

Bonaparte takes  
Gaza and Jaffa, and  
is compelled to retire  
from Acre.

of Mamelukes, and took Gaza and Jaffa. Bent upon the conquest of Syria, he invested Acre, but receiving a repulse from the English under Sir Sidney Smith, was compelled to raise the siege. He now relinquished Syria, and retired into Egypt.

His general, Desaix, had continued his successes against the Mamelukes, and the whole country of Egypt seemed reduced by the French. A Turkish army was landed at

1799.

Bonaparte defeats  
the Turks at  
Aboukir.

Aboukir, Napoleon immediately advanced against it, and again obtained a decisive victory. Soon after this, intelligence from Europe induced him to abandon his Egyptian expedition. Leaving his army under the command of Kleber, he returned to France with secrecy and despatch, and landed at Frejus.

Bonaparte returns to  
France.

## SECTION VI.

While Bonaparte was engaged in Egypt, a reverse of fortune had taken place in the French affairs in Europe. A

1799.

New coalition  
against France.

new combination had been formed against France. Russia, England, Naples and the Ottoman Porte, had formed alliances, and Austria joined the coalition.

The war on the continent was now renewed. The arch-duke Charles had won two battles over the French general, Jourdan, and penetrated Switzerland. The Russians and Austrians, under Suwarrow, had defeated the French at Cassano, and made themselves masters of Milan and Turin. In short, repeated defeats had deprived the French of nearly all their conquests in Italy.

French lose several  
battles in Italy.

In other quarters, their arms were more successful. Under Massena, they defeated a Russian army in Switzerland, and took Zurich. A combined English and Russian army, under the duke of York, which had invaded Holland, was, after some partial successes, compelled to retreat.

## SECTION VII.

Meanwhile France was torn by factions, and the directorial constitution was found unfitted to the government of

1799.

Bonaparte, first  
consul.

the nation. Bonaparte, a few weeks after his arrival in Paris, procured the dissolution of the directorial government, and established one in which the executive was vested in three consuls, of whom himself was first. Placed now at the head of the French nation, he made earnest overtures of peace to England, but they were haughtily rejected. Russia, however, abandoned the coalition, and stood aloof from the war.

The enemies which France had to encounter, on the continent, were Austria, part of the German empire, and Naples.

Moreau had the command in Upper Germany, and Bonaparte, in Italy. At the head of an army of thirty thousand men, he crossed Mount St. Bernard, through

1800.

Bonaparte crosses  
Mt. St. Bernard.

passes heretofore deemed inaccessible, surprised the Austrians, conquered the country to the Po,

and restored the Cisalpine republic. Melas, the Austrian general, had, at the commencement of this campaign, left what he deemed a sufficient force to guard the passes of the Alps, and with his main army, advanced upon Genoa, which the French general, Massena, had prepared to defend. The object of Melas was the invasion of France, and having placed Genoa in a situation which secured its ultimate surrender, he left the blockade to one of his generals, and himself advanced against Suchet, another French general, whom he compelled to retreat toward the French frontier. When on the eve of invading France, he received the astonishing intelligence of the passage of Bonaparte's army over Mont St. Bernard.—Melas was

1800.

Battle of Marengo.

forced to turn back, and on the plains of Marengo, the hostile armies met. The shock was terrific; the fierce and bloody encounter left the French masters of the field. This battle restored to France almost all she had lost in the preceding campaign, and was followed by an armistice, which extended to the armies on the Rhine.

Armistice.

Moreau meanwhile had crossed the Rhine, penetrated Bavaria, gained the battle of Hohenlinden, where he took 10,000 prisoners, and entered Austria. Negotiations for peace

Battle of Hohenlinden—treaty of Luneville.

were now opened at Luneville. The several republics founded by the French were acknowledged; and the Rhine was made the boundary between France and the German empire. A treaty of peace was soon after made with Naples. The naval war had meanwhile been carried on, and Malta had surrendered to the English.

English take Malta.

In the north of Europe, affairs wore a new aspect. Paul I., now czar of Russia, won over by the policy of Bonaparte, evinced a hostile spirit towards the English, and laid an embargo on their shipping. He also engaged Denmark and Sweden in an armed neutrality, the object of which

Politics of the north  
of Europe.

English attack  
Copenhagen.

was to secure the peace of Europe. The English despatched a fleet to the Baltic, took possession of the Danish fleet, and attacked Copenhagen, thus obliging the Danes to sue for peace.

The death of Paul produced another change in the politics of northern Europe. His son, Alexander I., who ascended the throne of the czars, entered into a convention with England, which restored peace between those powers.

Alexander I.



1802. Peace was now also concluded, March 25th, 1802, between France and the Porte. The English and Turkish forces had defeated the French army in Egypt, and compelled them to evacuate the country, which was restored to the Turks.

The short time in which France remained at peace, was employed by the ambitious Bonaparte in consolidating his power, and laying the foundation of his future greatness. He sought the favour of every powerful class. He re-established the Roman catholic religion, revived the priesthood, re-organized the national institute, permitted the emigrants to return, and pleased the officers of the army, already devotedly attached to his person, by creating the "Legion of Honour," a military aristocracy, of which himself was chief. Such was his popularity that he was declared by the senate first consul for life.

1803.  
Bonaparte declared  
first consul for life.

The island of St. Domingo had revolted during the French revolution, the negroes had risen upon their masters, and commotions and massacres succeeded. During the wars which followed, the English had invaded the island. The French colonists and negroes accommodated their differences, turned their forces against the common enemy, and expelled the English. Although still tributary to France, they had adopted a new government, and Toussaint Louverture, who, though a negro, possessed distinguished talents and virtues, now held the first station on the island. The French attacked the islanders, Toussaint was treacherously made prisoner, and taken to Paris, where Bonaparte disgracefully permitted the sable patriot to suffer and die in prison. The islanders resisted the French successfully, and maintained their liberty.

A year had not elapsed since the peace of Amiens, before disputes arose respecting the fulfilment of the treaty, and on this pretence war was renewed between France and England. The French seized the electorate of Hanover, and a British squadron blockaded the mouths of the Elbe and Weser.

1803.  
War between  
France and Eng-  
land.

It was at this period that Bonaparte stained his name by the murder of the Duke D'Enghien. This young nobleman had been accused of favouring those who conspired against the life of the first consul. He was instantly arrested, and, after the form of a military trial, condemned and shot near the castle of Vincennes. The obsequious senate now offered to Bonaparte the title of Emperor, and he prepared for the coronation of himself, and his consort, the charitable and elegant Josephine.

## CHAPTER V.

## ENGLAND—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

About the year 1784, a dispute arose between Great Britain and the United States of America. The Americans, being neutral in the war, had supplied the French with corn. Orders were issued by the British ministry, searching, seizing, and detaining all American vessels engaged in that trade. The British also continued to occupy a chain of forts on the Canada frontier, which by the treaty of Paris, they had agreed to surrender to the Americans. They also encouraged the Indian tribes, upon their borders, to acts of savage warfare, and the forts thus retained served as covers for their depredations. These acts were viewed by the Americans as manifestations of a hostile spirit on the part of Great Britain, and they resisted it, by laying an embargo for thirty days upon all English shipping in their ports. But the matters in dispute were wisely submitted to negotiation. Mr. Jay, the American minister, was received in England in a conciliatory spirit, and the treaty of 1794, settling the question in dispute, was the result.

A French fleet, consisting of twenty-five ships of the line, and sixteen frigates, had put to sea, under admiral Villant, for the purpose of protecting their richly laden West India fleet. The French admiral was watched by Lord Howe, having a British fleet of about the same force under his command. On the first of June, the two fleets came to action off the harbour of Brest. After a well fought battle, the British admiral succeeded in capturing six ships of the line. The loss was extremely severe on both sides.

Battle between the  
French and English  
off Brest.

The affairs of Great Britain became more and more embarrassing. In proportion as the French arms were triumphant over the allied powers, the war became unpopular. British commerce and manufactures languished, money became scarce, and the bank of England suspended the payment of its bills. Spain had withdrawn from the coalition, and united with France, and the people being seriously alarmed by threats of invasion, were clamorous for peace. But, the early part of 1797 was signalized by a brilliant naval victory obtained by the British fleet, under Sir John Jarvis, of fifteen sail, over that of Spain, consisting of twenty-seven sail of the line, off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal. In this battle, the British admiral exhibited prodigies of valour, and the brave Nelson here commenced his career of victories.

1797.

British naval victory  
off Cape St.  
Vincent.

Ireland this year became united with England under the name of the "United kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

1797.

England and Ireland united.

An armament of English and Russians, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, invaded Holland. The Dutch fleet, of eight sail of the line, lying in the Texel, surrendered to the English. Afterwards the duke of York landed in Holland, and took command of the combined English and Russian armies, consisting of thirty-five thousand men. This armament wholly failed of supporting the high expectations it had raised. After many fruitless efforts against the French general, Bruice, they were compelled to evacuate Holland with great loss. The different

1802.

Peace of Amiens.

nations, grown weary of the protracted horrors of war, began seriously to think of peace. Negotiations, commenced, which resulted in the peace of Amiens, 1802.

The generous public spirit which carried the Americans through the war of independence began to relax. Without foreign intercourse, without a bond of union, and without a national character or government, they found themselves on the verge of anarchy and civil war. The

1786.

American affairs.

distressing scarcity of money left no means to pay the debts which individuals had contracted in time of war. Acts for paying debts otherwise than in money, and other measures of impolitic legislation, did but increase the evils. A suspension of legal process for debt was demanded, and an insurrectionary spirit manifested itself in Massachusetts, and in some other states.

In the mean time attempts were made to establish a friendly intercourse with foreign nations by sending ambassadors to the principal courts; the insurrection in Massachusetts, (which was headed by one Shays) and other turbulent movements were quelled, and a convention of the states assembled at Philadelphia for the purpose of forming a constitution. The great and good Washington lent his

1789.

Federal Constitution.—Washington president.

influence to this convention, and was appointed its president. The result of their labours was the existing federal constitution. Under this constitution, Washington was inaugurated first president of the United States, and John Adams vice president.

Thomas Jefferson was appointed secretary of state, and filled the office with great ability. The revenue was committed to Alexander Hamilton, and the wise system, by him established, has not been essentially departed from. Washington and Adams

1793.

Washington again president.

were the second time elected president and vice-president. Political parties began to assume a character of great bitterness. The terms federal and

republican became party names. Distinguished men arrayed themselves at the head of each; and English and French politics, the first adopted by the federal, the last by the republican party, gave zeal and energy to their contests. The paternal mind of Washington was grieved at such disgraceful quarrels; and he maintained a neutral position.

Upon the recommendation of the secretary of the treasury, congress had laid a duty on domestic distilled spirits. This measure was violently resisted in Pennsylvania, and several counties resorted to that undignified proceeding called the "whiskey insurrection." A strong military force under Governor Mifflin, was sent into the disaffected counties, which promptly suppressed the insurrectionary spirit of the people.

1794.

"Whiskey Insurrection."

A hostile spirit existed among the western savages, and Gen. Harmer, at the head of 1400 men, was sent against them. Having suffered himself to be drawn into an ambush, he was defeated, and his army slaughtered by the Indians, near Chillicothe. Gen. Wayne was sent to succeed him. He defeated the savages in many sanguinary conflicts, and restored peace on that frontier.

Indian war.

The United States now rose rapidly in power and prosperity, and their friendship was sought by foreign nations. Great commercial benefits were secured by the treaty with the powers of Great Britain, Spain and Algiers, and the blessings of peace, liberty, and independence, were freely enjoyed. Seeing the labours and anxieties of his life so happily rewarded, Washington now looked forward to the enjoyment of that peaceful retirement in the bosom of his family which he so ardently coveted. With the affection of a father, and the foresight of a statesman, he published his inimitable farewell address, and declined a re-election. John Adams was elected president and Thomas Jefferson vice-president.

1797.

John Adams president.

The rulers of the French republic, having treated the American ambassadors with indignity, and the vessels of war and privateers of that country having made extensive depredations upon American commerce, measures of war were resorted to. A regular army was organized, and Washington was again called from his chosen retreat, and appointed commander-in-chief. The aged veteran obeyed the call of his country, and again lent his genius for its defence. Reprisals were made at sea, and the French frigate L'Insurgent, of 40 guns, was captured by the frigate Constellation of 38 guns. A change of measures, how-

1798.

War with France.

ever, on the part of France, led to a negotiation which resulted in a treaty of peace. This event was hailed with great satisfaction by the people.

1799.

Peace.

But the tone of public rejoicing was soon interrupted by deep feelings of national grief. It was announced that Washington, the father of his country, was no more. He died on the 14th of December, at his own peaceful mansion on the banks of the Potomac. Of him it may be truly said, that his name was a shield, and his example a treasure to his country.

1799.

Death of Washington.

The republican party, of whom Mr. Jefferson had long been considered the head, now obtained the ascendancy, and that gentleman was elected and inaugurated president of the United States. The high popularity which brought him into office was generally well sustained by his measures. During a period of unusual commotion among the powers with whom the United States had the most intimate relations, he administered the government in the determined spirit of peace, and prosperity rapidly increased. The Indians were kept in amity, not by the bayonet, but by kindness and a faithful observance of treaties ; and the port of New Orleans, the great emporium of the West, which had been closed against the United States, was opened by the purchase of the whole territory of Louisiana.

1801.

Thomas Jefferson  
president.

1803.

Louisiana purchased.

## PERIOD VIII.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Peace of { SEVENTH EPOCH, 1802 A. D. } Amiens.

TO THE



Battle of Waterloo.

Battle of { EIGHTH EPOCH, 1815 A. D. } Waterloo.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### FRENCH EMPIRE.

##### SECTION I.

Napoleon, with Josephine, was vested with the imperial dignity on the second of December, 1804. The pope, reconciled by the establishment of the catholic religion, assisted at the splendid ceremonial, crowned and anointed him, in the church of Notre Dame, at Paris.

1804.  
Napoleon crowned  
emperor.

Those states which, by the directory, had been moulded into republics, were now, by the emperor, to be remodelled. The Cisalpine and Ligurian republics were formed into the kingdom of Italy, of which Napoleon was crowned king at Milan. He exercised his government by a viceroy.

Alarmed at a power so formidable, and an ambition so grasping, Russia and Austria formed a third coalition. Spain had already allied herself to France, and had engaged in hostilities with England.

Third coalition  
against France.

Napoleon, as usual, before hand with his enemies, crossed the Rhine at the head of a formidable force, compelled a large army of the Austrians at Ulm, to capitulate, and advanced rapidly upon Vienna. The emperor Francis, with his court, fled to Hungary, and the French became masters of the German capital. At Austerlitz, on the

1805.

Battle of Austerlitz.

anniversary of his coronation, he met the united Austrian and Russian armies. The forces of the contending powers were nearly equal, and the presence of the three emperors of France, Russia, and Germany, lent energy to the contest. From sunrise until evening, the battle was hotly waged, when the genius of Napoleon again prevailed, and the allies were compelled to retreat, leaving to the French more than thirty thousand prisoners, and an immense quantity of artillery. The successes of Ulm and Austerlitz were followed by the treaty of Presbourg with Austria; that power now deserting the coalition.

Treaty of  
Presbourg.

In 1806, the ambitious views of Napoleon became still more apparent. Holland had, the preceding year, been made into a kingdom, of which his brother, Louis Bonaparte, was made king. Naples was given to Joseph Bonaparte, a younger brother, who was also invested with the title of king of the two Sicilies. Several provinces were constituted into duchies, or grand fiefs of the empire, and given to the emperor's relations and favourites. His sister, Pauline, was made princess of Guastalla; his brother-in-law Murat, grand-duke of Berg and Cleves; while Eugene Beauharnois, the son of his empress Josephine, by a former marriage, was sent viceroy to

1806.

Napoleon makes  
Holland, Naples,  
&c. kingdoms.

Italy. Fourteen princes in the south and west of

Confederation of the  
Rhine.

Germany, were formed into the "Confederation of the Rhine." They were separated from the Germanic body, and recognized Napoleon as their head, under the title of Protector. The German empire now ceased to exist, and Francis II. laid down the title of emperor of Germany, and assumed that of emperor of Austria. Switzerland was also brought under the domination of France; Napoleon declaring himself its mediator.

Frederic William of Prussia, who had heretofore been neutral, this year engaged in the war against France. The main origin of his hostility was the duplicity of the emperor, who had encouraged the Prussians to seize the electorate of Hanover, and who had since, in negotiating with Great Britain, offered to restore it. The Prussian army, with their

Prussia at war with  
France.

Battle of Jena.

allies, amounted to 110,000 men. Napoleon met them at Jena, with 150,000 men, and obtained a complete victory. The different bodies of the Prussian army were, one after another, obliged to surrender, and in little more than a month, the French took 140,000 prisoners, great numbers of stand-

ards, large quantities of artillery, and made themselves masters of the principal towns of the kingdom.

From Berlin, the capital, on the twenty-sixth of December, 1806,

“Berlin Decree.” Napoleon issued his famous decree, declaring the islands of Great Britain in a state of blockade, and prohibiting the countries under his government from all intercourse with that nation. He next detached Saxony from Prussia; conferred

Saxony made a kingdom.

upon the elector the dignity of a king, and brought him into his alliance. The Prussian provinces on the lower Rhine were reduced by an army from Holland, under Louis Bonaparte, and the French, under Jerome Bonaparte, made themselves masters of Silesia.

Russia became now seriously alarmed, and her armies advanced to protect the empire. At Pultusk, a battle was fought between the French and Russians, without any decisive result, both parties claiming the victory. February 8th, 1807, another contest took place at Eylau, and continued from three

1807.

Battle of Eylau.

o'clock in the afternoon until the next night, when, about twelve o'clock, the carnage ceased. Both sides again claimed the victory, but the French obtained possession of the town. The armies now, for some time, remained inactive. In May, the French besieged and took Dantzic.

The June following, another more sanguinary and decisive battle

Battle of Friedland. was fought at Friedland, where the Russians were defeated, and compelled to retreat with great loss.

Koningsburg was soon after captured by the French under Marshal Soult. The battle of Friedland was followed by a personal interview

Peace of Tilsit.

between Alexander and Napoleon, who met on a raft, in the river Niemen, and the peace of Tilsit was concluded.

Napoleon next dictated a peace to Prussia, by which Frederic William was stripped of one third of his dominions. By these treaties, the brothers of Napoleon were acknowledged in their dignities,

Kingdom of Westphalia formed.

and another of the family, Jerome Bonaparte, provided with a kingdom in Westphalia. This young man had visited America. In Baltimore, he gave his hand to the young and beautiful Miss Patterson, and took her to France. Napoleon, whose untameable ambition, no tie, human or divine, could bind, disannulled the marriage, and Jerome ceased to be the protector of his wife, and became, thenceforth, the minion of his brother.

Lucien Bonaparte was also offered some of “the kingdoms of this world,” if he would do the same homage to the demon of ambition; but he refused to worship with such a shameless sacrifice; and if he was never a king, he remained what is better, an upright, independent man.



## SECTION II.

Denmark, which had heretofore been neutral, now manifested some symptoms of hostility towards England. Measures were immediately taken by the English government for controlling her navy. They demanded of the Danes to deposit their ships of the line in some British port. The haughty demand was refused. A British fleet was despatched to the Baltic, conveying land forces, which defeated a Danish army, and invested Copenhagen. The city capitulated, and the shipping and naval stores were delivered up to the English. The government refused to ratify the capitulation, and declared war against England.

The English take possession of the Danish fleet.

Copenhagen invested.

This attack upon Denmark produced a rupture between Russia and England, which caused a cessation of all commercial intercourse between those nations, but did not result in other hostilities.

Napoleon being delivered from fear of the northern powers, by the peace of Tilsit, turned his attention towards Spain and Portugal, and meditated the project of uniting to his already vast empire, the whole Spanish peninsula. The dissensions existing between Charles IV., king of Spain, and his son Ferdinand, prince of Asturias, afforded him uncommon facilities for interference, which he did not fail to improve. After considerable intrigue, a secret treaty was concluded between the monarchs of France and Spain, the condition of which was the partition of Portugal between them, and the admittance of French troops into Spain, under the pretence of conquering Portugal and Gibraltar. A reconciliation was effected between Charles and his son, and the French troops were admitted to pass as friends into Portugal.

The lucrative commerce which England maintained with that kingdom, was, to Napoleon, a source of annoyance, and by his influence, the Portuguese were compelled to shut their ports against all British vessels. The French army, headed by Junot, advanced towards Lisbon. Under these circumstances, the prince regent and royal family of Braganza, resolved to remove the seat of government to Brazil, and hastily embarked in a British fleet, which had blockaded the city, and which now afforded them protection from the French, who soon after entered Lisbon.

French troops in Portugal.

Royal family remove to Brazil.

While the French were making themselves masters of Spain, under the character of friends, the court of Madrid was agitated by the most violent factions, arising from the discords of the royal family; and the city was the scene of frequent tumults. In March, 1808, Charles IV. abdicated the crown in favour of his son Ferdinand,

prince of Asturias, who received the title of Ferdinand VII. Murat, with a French army, was now in possession of Madrid. Under these circumstances, both kings, Charles and Ferdinand, with the royal family, were induced by various pretexts to go to Bayonne, thus completely putting themselves into the power of the French emperor. Here they were compelled to abdicate, and the younger members of the family to renounce all claim upon the Spanish crown. Napoleon retained them prisoners, and issued orders for an assembly of notables to meet at Bayonne, to settle the government. Few Spaniards, except the partisans of France, attended. The crown of Spain was conferred upon Joseph Bonaparte, who resigned the kingdom of Naples to Murat.

During this year, a new system of French jurisprudence was published, under the title of the "Code Napoleon." The ablest jurists in France had been employed by the emperor in its formation, and he gave much personal thought and labour to it, and it now remains as his best title to future fame. Soon after the publication of this code, Napoleon established a university for the superintendence of national education. Nor was female education overlooked by his grasping mind, though in his arrangements he was far from regarding this subject in its true light. The institution which he founded, and placed under the celebrated Madame Campan, was designed rather as a means of encouraging the military than of elevating the female mind and character. It was made for the daughters of the "Legion of Honor," especially those whose fathers fell in his service.

From this point, the pinnacle of Napoleon's greatness, we see him who only eighteen years before was a Corsican stripling, making orations in favour of liberty and the rights of man, now maker of kings and arbiter of Europe. Look over the map of that portion of the earth which had for so many centuries sent forth its navigators to discover, its inhabitants to settle, and its arts to civilize the most distant and barbarous regions. Behold it subjugated by the magic genius of one giant mind. An island on the west, the land of our fathers, alone withstood; and neither directly or indirectly, quailed before the power of him whom impartial history must, though sorrowfully, pronounce at this period to have become an usurper and a tyrant.\*

Let us turn for a moment from the colossal Napoleon, who bestrode the continent of Europe, to La Fayette, whom our history has for a time lost sight of, though posterity never will. He inhabited for four years the gloomy dungeons of Olmutz. The Emperor of Austria, appealed to by Washington in behalf of the American people, and by other friends of justice and

\*Not a usurper with regard to France,—for if that country chose to invest him with supreme command, Americans hold that he was therefore their *legitimate* sovereign; but what had unoffending Switzerland done, what Spain and Portugal, and other states, that he should assume to govern them?

humanity, offered him his liberty if he would abjure his principles. No less the votary of truth than the friend of human rights, La Fayette would not tamper with a lie to save himself, or even his dearer family, who had, with the generous devotion of truly noble Frenchwomen,\* immured themselves with him. He did right, and left the event to God; and was, in September, 1797, and by the instrumentality of Bonaparte,† delivered from prison. Being reinstated in a portion of his paternal inheritance, he retired to La Grange, and quietly gave himself to agricultural pursuits. Napoleon sought to draw him thence, and make him another satellite in his system; but the patriot, though grateful for his release, rejected every public situation, by which he would have countenanced the military despotism to which his country was subjected. In the result, let the young behold how much safer, as well as nobler, is the course of independent virtue than that of lawless ambition.

### SECTION III.

The Spaniards did not tamely relinquish their national independence, but roused to arms;—though not less than 100,000 French troops were dispersed throughout the kingdom, and though the Spaniards were enervated by that luxury which the gold and silver of the west had brought in its train. Provincial assemblies were formed,

1811.

The Spaniards rouse  
to resistance.

acknowledging the authority of Ferdinand VII., and orders were issued for raising volunteers, and organizing armies. The French fleet in the harbour of Cadiz, was compelled by its patriotic citizens to surrender; and a French army, near Almansa, was almost wholly destroyed. They attacked Valencia, and there learned that the Spanish people, though destitute of regular troops, would defend their soil. The French were compelled to retreat, and at Saragossa were again repulsed with the loss of 12,000 men. In Andalusia, the French general, Dupont, was defeated, and compelled to surrender his army. These victories placed the southern parts of the kingdom entirely in the hands of the patriots. King Joseph meanwhile arrived in Madrid, and assumed the reins of government; but learning the successes of the Spaniards, he retreated from the capital.

French evacuate  
Madrid.—Ferdinand  
assumes the gov-  
ernment.

George III., of England, being in a state of mental incapacity, his son, afterwards George IV., now acted as regent of that kingdom. The successful resistance of the Spaniards to the arms of Napoleon, gave new hopes to his enemies; and a treaty of alliance was now made between the regent of Great Britain and the patriots of Spain.

\* The heroic Madame La Fayette sent her son to Washington, from whom he received a father's protection, went with her two daughters to Austria, threw herself at the feet of the emperor, and besought him in pathetic terms to release her husband. But the only favour she could obtain, was that of sharing with her daughters, his rigorous captivity.

† His release was made a condition in the treaty of Campo-Formio.

The Portuguese followed the example of their neighbours, and rose in arms against the French. The British dispatched an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, (afterwards Lord Wellington,) which landed in Portugal Oct. 12th, 1808, and obtained a victory over the French under general Junot, at Vimeira, and compelled them to evacuate Portugal. The British army, after remaining two months in Lisbon, advanced into Spain, under the command of Sir John Moore.

1808.

Portuguese and  
English defeat the  
French at Vimeira.

Napoleon, unused to retrograde movements, now took upon himself the command of the Spanish war. Victory still followed his standard. He defeated several patriotic armies, and advanced upon Madrid, which, after a weak defence, surrendered.

1809.

Napoleon in Spain.

The English army, under Sir John Moore, which had proceeded as far as Salamanca, was forced to retreat. After a march of fourteen days they reached Corunna, but were unable to embark before the arrival of the French. The English were attacked, and Sir John was mortally wounded. His army, though with considerable loss, effected their embarkation, his officers having previously snatched a few sorrowful moments to bury him upon the shore.

1809.

Battle of Corunna  
—death of Sir John  
Moore.

While, in the south of Europe, the French and Spaniards were thus engaged, in the north, Russia and Denmark were at war with Sweden. The English aided the Swedes, but fortune was against them. Finland was added to the Russian empire. Gustavus IV. was deposed by the Swedes, on pretence of his incapacity for governing, and the Duke of Sudermania elected king, under the title of Charles XIII. British vessels were now excluded from the Swedish ports.

While Napoleon was busy in Spain, where he imprisoned the royal family and abolished the inquisition, Austria prepared for war, and levied great armies. The Tyrolese rebelled, the Westphalians expelled their king, Jerome Bonaparte; and Prussia and Italy were ready to avail themselves of the first adverse circumstances to burst the chains by which the despot of Europe had bound them.

Napoleon returned to France soon after the battle of Corunna, and gave orders for his armies to cross the Rhine. At Orenberg he surprised and destroyed a division of the Austrian army, under the arch-duke Charles; the battle continued from two in the afternoon until evening, when darkness alone saved the Austrians from an entire defeat. Napoleon now advanced upon Vienna, from which the emperor Francis was again compelled to flee. The French, after entering the capital, proceeded down the southern bank of the Danube, the arch-duke Charles having collected his scattered army, and taken a position on the northern bank, between Presburg and Vienna. At Aspern and Esling, where the French attempted to

1809.

Napoleon enters Vi-  
enna.

cross the river, a bloody battle was fought. The French were driven back, and compelled to recross to Lobau, an island in the river, from which Napoleon had thrown bridges for conveying his army to the opposite bank. After remaining several weeks shut up on this island, Napoleon, deceiving the Austrians with regard to the contemplated point of attack, ordered a bridge thrown over the river, opposite to a wing of the Austrian army, which was stationed at Wagram. One night sufficed for the completion of his plan, and the following morning, the surprised Austrians beheld the French army, who had secretly crossed the river, drawn up in battle array. The

contest, which commenced at sunrise, continued until night. The French obtained the victory, though it was less decisive than those which Napoleon's arms were wont to achieve. The Austrians retreated into Moravia; an armis-

Peace of Vienna. tice was concluded, and at length the treaty of Vienna was signed by Francis and Napoleon. Its

terms were less unfavourable to Austria than might have been expected from the almost ruined condition of the empire. The cause of this was not long a secret. The fair Maria Louisa, eldest daughter of the emperor of Austria, was thrown into the balance, to be

1810.

Napoleon divorces Josephine and marries Maria Louisa.

given in marriage to Napoleon. Accordingly, after his return to France, he divorced Josephine, thus violating the laws of God, and severing from his side, and breaking the heart of the best of his friends, while he took in her place the daughter of his ancient enemy.

#### SECTION IV.

The British, meantime, had invaded Holland with a considerable fleet, bearing an army of 40,000 men, under the duke of York, and made themselves masters of Flushing. A French army, under Bernadotte, was sent to the defence of Antwerp. Many of the British

1809.

Duke of Yorks' expedition to Holland.

who had taken possession of the island of Walcheren, with a view of blocking up the Scheldt, fell victims to the pestilential atmosphere of the marshes which surrounded them, and the remainder returned; the enterprise having entirely failed of its object.

The peninsular war had been prosecuted by the generals of Napoleon, while he had been occupied with the Austrians. Saragossa, after a vigorous and determined resistance, in which 20,000 of its defenders perished, fell before the French, under Soult; and a succession of disasters attended the efforts of the patriots in various parts of the kingdom.

The army, under Marshal Soult, entered Portugal, but was forced to retreat by Sir Arthur Wellesley. Efforts more united, the result of a better understanding, were now made by the English and

**Portuguese.** Under the command of Wellesley, their armies entered Spain, and at Talavera, achieved a victory over the French, commanded by king Joseph in person. A reinforcement of French, under Marshals Soult and Ney, arriving in this part of Spain, Wellesley was compelled to retreat into Portugal. Genoa, besieged and bravely defended for more than four months, capitulated to the French. At Ocana, the French, under the command of king Joseph, obtained a complete victory over the Spaniards, and at the termination of this campaign, the cause of the unfortunate patriots seemed almost desperate.

The ensuing winter the French made themselves masters of Malaga, and completed a line of posts from the bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, intersecting the whole of Spain, through its capital.

1810.

French take  
Seville.

Seville was taken, and the siege of Cadiz commenced. A sanguinary contest was maintained in the southern and eastern parts of the kingdom, but the most interesting events occurred on the side of Portugal. The strong fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo was carried by the French, Portugal was invaded, and Almeida taken. The defence of Portugal devolved upon Sir Arthur Wellesley. This prudent general now determined to harass his enemy, and avoid general actions. At the pass of Buraco, Massena, the French commander attacked him, but was repulsed with considerable loss. He retreated to within about thirty miles of Lisbon, and Massena made Santarem his head quarters.

This year, the Cortes of Spain assembled, and declared the renunciation at Bayonne to be null and void, and swore allegiance to Ferdinand VII. They also appointed a regency of three of their most popular officers, and vested in them the executive power.

Early in January, marshal Suchet, on the part of the French, took Tortosa, and marshal Soult, Olivenza. The whole of the preceding year, marshal Victor had been engaged in the siege of Cadiz, yet the place seemed now no nearer being reduced. Massena retreated from Santarem, and was closely pursued by Wellington.

1811.

Wellington defeats  
the French at  
Albuera.

At Albuera a sanguinary battle was fought, which terminated in victory to the allies. Wellington now commenced the siege of Badajos, but on the advance of the French, who were again reinforced, he raised the siege and retired. In Catalonia, Suchet still maintained the war with vigour. He besieged Tarragona, which surrendered, and experienced every species of shocking outrage. Having made himself master of Catalonia, he invaded Valencia, defeated the Spanish general, Blake, and took the fortress of Murviedro.

## SECTION V.

While his generals were thus carrying on the war in Spain, the emperor of France was engaged in projects for the exclusion of British commerce from the continent, and in preparations for contesting with them the supremacy on the sea. The city of Hamburg was annexed to the French empire.

AUSTRIA was this year employed in recruiting her finances, and recovering herself from the depression into which her unfortunate wars with France had plunged her. The marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa, seemed to give to Francis a prospect of permanent friendship with France, but Austria was rendered subservient to the French interests.—Prussia was at the same time dependent on France.

RUSSIA was this year engaged in successful war with the Ottoman Porte. Alexander had as yet maintained his friendly relations with Napoleon, whom he had been careful not to offend, but he was yet capable of withstanding his power; and the only continental sovereign who was. Some causes of difference had now, however, arisen between them, and appearances were ominous of approaching war.

DENMARK, afraid of the power of Bonaparte, still kept up the show of hostility towards England.—The same was the case with SWEDEN. Marshall Bernadotte, an officer of the conqueror, who had been by his influence elected Crown Prince by the Swedes, took a large share in the administration of Sweden, and governed himself by the wishes of the nation, rather than those of his former master. Such was the situation of Europe at the opening of the year 1812.

The French arms in Spain, this year experienced a reverse. Lord

1812.  
French unsuccessful  
in Spain.

Wellington, who commanded the allies, took Badajoz, reduced the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo, obtained a decisive victory at Salamanca, and soon after entered Madrid, which Joseph Bonaparte, on his approach, had evacuated.

Alexander of Russia had, in March, issued a formal declaration of war against France, having previously made peace with the Porte, and settled his disputes with England. Napoleon, after vast preparations, began early in the spring to march numerous bodies of his troops into the interior of Germany, and in May he set out from Paris, accompanied by the empress, Maria Louisa. After receiving the flattering homage of the various German monarchs, whose dominions he visited, he

Russia declares war  
against France.

met the emperor, Francis II., at Dresden, and being assured of the alliance of Austria and Prussia, proceeded northward to take the command of his army. He crossed the Vistula with 500,000 men. In his progress towards Wilna, the capital of Russian Poland, he experienced little resistance; but his armies, which had been directed to open a passage to St. Petersburg, were foiled in their attempts. The Russians, under count Witgenstein, defeated a French army under Marshal Oudinot, at Polotsk, and General Essen, who commanded at Riga, checked the advance of the French under McDonald.

1812.

Napoleon invades  
Russia.

Napoleon, on the 17th of August, attacked the main Russian army at Smolensk. The Russians, after a valiant contest, retired, but the French, on entering the city, found it in flames. The Russian army now retreated to a position near Moscow, where general Kutusoff was called to the command. The French came up with the Russians at

Borodino, where a desperate battle was fought,  
Battle of Borodino. September 7th, 1812. The contest, which continued with great fury through the whole day, left the French masters of the bloody field, on which lay 50,000 of their own dead. The Russians acknowledged a loss of 25,000. Kutusoff, unable to withstand the invaders, ordered Moscow to be abandoned, and retired with his army, to protect the provinces beyond it. On the 14th of September, the French entered Moscow, but found it deserted by its inhabitants, and on fire in many places. They made every effort to extinguish the flames, but the Russians persisted in setting fires in new directions, determined rather to destroy their country, than allow it to harbour the invaders. Napoleon speaks thus of the horror of the scene—"It was the spectacle of a sea and billows of fire, a sky and clouds of flame; mountains of red rolling flames, like immense waves of the sea, alternately bursting forth and elevating themselves to skies of fire, and then sinking into the ocean of flame below." The destruction of the city precluding the possibility of making it his winter quarters, and the assemblages of Russian troops around Moscow, induced the French emperor to offer terms of peace. The reply was, that no terms could be listened to, while the enemy remained in their country.

French enter Mos-  
cow—Russians burn  
the city.

No alternative but retreat was now left, and humiliating as was the measure, Napoleon embraced it. He divided his forces, and directing Murat and Beauharnois, with a detachment of 50,000 men, to attack the grand Russian army, while he led the remainder on the route to Minsk. Murat and Beauharnois met with a severe repulse, and the whole French army continued its retreat under the most distressing circumstances. The cold which now came on with unusual severity, destroyed immense numbers, and unfitted the survivors for vigorous exertions, while the hardy Russians pursued close upon their heels, and slaughtered them at every

Napoleon evacuates  
Moscow.

Retreat from Russia.

unusual severity, destroyed immense numbers, and unfitted the survivors for vigorous exertions, while the hardy Russians pursued close upon their heels, and slaughtered them at every



turn. At the passage of the Berezina, Napoleon, supposing that his whole army had crossed, ordered the bridge to be blown up. But a portion of the French were still on the other side, and as they were rushing towards it, driven by the fire of their pursuers, they heard a crash, and the bridge blew up. Uttering a shriek of despair, numbers plunged into the stream, and sunk amidst floating ice, while the remainder were slaughtered by the Russians. When the army reached Wilna, Napoleon gave the chief command to Murat, and himself hastened to bear to France the tale of his misfortunes.

Thus was destroyed the most formidable army which any general of modern, and probably of ancient times, had ever brought into the field. Out of the 500,000 men, not more than 50,000 (one in ten,) survived to re-cross the Russian frontier.

## SECTION VI.

The disasters of this campaign extended farther than to the loss of the French army. The allies, whose friendship was founded in necessity, and the nations whose submission to France had been obtained at the point of the bayonet, now showed their readiness to emancipate themselves from its yoke. Prussia gave the signal of defection,

New coalition  
against Napoleon.

and early this year leagued with Russia and England. Sweden, already in the interest of Russia, soon joined the coalition.

On the return of Napoleon, to Paris, his genius appeared invested with new splendour, and the hold he possessed upon the affections of the French, seemed strengthened by misfortune. Though all France

1813.

Napoleon raises another vast army.

was thrown into mourning, by the unfortunate issue of the Russian campaign, the nation responded to the call of the emperor, and new levies, to the amount of 350,000 men, were made early in the spring of 1813. The wreck of the grand army with which Napoleon had entered Russia, had been placed in the fortress occupied by the French in Prussia. The Russians advanced, and the inhabitants of the countries through which they passed, every where joined them. The French were compelled to retreat, and several of their fortresses surrendered to the allies. Alexander and Frederic now made their head quarters at Dresden. Napoleon advanced at the head of his new recruits. At Lutzen, the French met the army of the allies, and after a bloody conflict, remained masters of the field. Unable to maintain themselves on the Elbe, the main army of the allies retreated to Bautzen, about twelve leagues from

Napoleon victorious  
at Lutzen and  
Bautzen.

Dresden. Here another battle was fought, with great loss on both sides. The French again conquered, but the allies retired in good order. An armistice of two months took place, during which, Austria joined the allies; bringing them a considerable increase of military strength. At the renewal of hostilities, in August, Napoleon had, in various posts in Saxony and Silesia, 250,000 men. The allies at-

tacked Dresden during the absence of Napoleon in Silesia, but his rapid return defeated their plans. He saved the city, and killed and made prisoners 25,000 of their troops. At Culm, the allies obtained a victory over the French general, Vandamme. The Prussian general, Blucher, was victorious at Katzbach, and in other quarters the allies gained advantages over the generals of Napoleon. Napoleon now concentrated his forces, and marched to Leipzic. On the 15th of October, the grand army of the allies advanced. The fol-

lowing day, the battle of Leipzic—the greatest battle on record—commenced, and continued three days. Napoleon, watching its progress, saw the princes of the “Confederation of the Rhine,” pass over to his enemies. This was a fatal stroke. He lost the battle, and his fortunes were irretrievably fallen. Again he sought his capital, followed by the remnant of a noble army, and arrived at Paris on the 9th of November.

The Spanish campaign had been equally disastrous. The French generals, not reinforced, could only maintain a defensive warfare. At Vittoria, the English and patriots, under Wellington, obtained a decisive victory; and henceforth, all efforts to check their progress were unavailing.

After the retreat of Napoleon from Germany, the garrisons, which had been left there, were forced, one by one, to surrender. The allied sovereigns now advanced upon the Rhine, and with the opening of the next campaign, France was on all sides threatened with invasion. Wellington had entered upon its southern frontier, and the Russians and Austrians were ready to advance on the side of the Rhine.\*

Holland, without tumult or bloodshed, emancipated herself from the French yoke, and reconstructed her ancient government. Murat, the king of Naples, ungratefully abandoned Napoleon, now in the time of his utmost need.

The French nation was weary and worn out with war; and all efforts to rouse the national spirit and recruit the army, proved ineffectual. The allies entered France; and Napoleon, after making the most of his inadequate means of defence, found himself surrounded by difficulties which no genius or skill could surmount. On the 30th of March, 1814, the allies advanced upon Paris. The empress Maria Louisa, and all the civil authorities, left the city, and a French army, which had taken a position on the heights near Paris, was defeated. The following day, the metropolis was delivered up to the allied sovereigns. They declared their resolution of not treating with Napoleon, and a provisional government was established, which passed a decree absolving the French nation and army from their allegiance to the emperor.

\* Napoleon, at this period, liberated Ferdinand, king of Spain, whom he had detained in captivity more than four years, and the pope, whom he had kept a prisoner at Fontainebleau, more than five years.

In the south, Wellington had entered Bordeaux, and erected the standard of the Bourbons; and the Austrians had made themselves masters of Lyons. Napoleon, who had been engaged in attempts to obstruct the progress of the two grand armies, and to prevent their union, was advancing towards Paris, at the head of 50,000 men, when he learned its capitulation. Finding himself too late to prevent its surrender, he stationed himself at Fontainebleau, and there learned the general defection, and the decree of forfeiture; and on the 11th of April, 1814, signed an act of abdication, renouncing for himself and family the thrones of France and Italy. In exchange, he received from the allies the sovereignty of the small island of Elba, in the Mediterranean. Here he was to retain the imperial title, and receive an income from France for his support.

1814.

Napoleon abdicates  
the crown.

## SECTION VII.

A new constitution, dictated by the allied sovereigns, was formed by the French senate; the Bourbon family were recalled, and Louis XVIII.\* declared king. France was reduced to the limits it had occupied at the commencement of the revolution.

Louis, who had remained an exile in England, arrived in Paris in June. After so many years of war, peace could not but be grateful to the French nation; still their pride was humbled at the loss of the imperial conquests, and in receiving their monarch from the hands of foreigners. The year had not expired, before discontents and murmurs were heard from various parts of the nation. Intrigues and conspiracies were carried on, and assumed an alarming character. A congress of the allied sovereigns, which had assembled at Vienna, to adjust and settle the concerns of Europe, had not yet adjourned, when, ten months from his departure for Elba, Napoleon again trod the soil of France. With his imperial guard of Elba, numbering about 1,000 men, he escaped from the island, landed at Cannes, near Frejus, and at once advanced towards Paris. The troops stationed in his course, were in vain exhorted by the officers of the king to oppose his progress. The sight of their general awakened pleasing remembrances of past, and dreams of future glory, and they hailed him with joyful acclamations. At Grenoble, they seemed, for a moment, hesitating. Napoleon advanced alone, and offered his breast,—“Let him who will, kill his emperor.” Overcome by the appeal, they threw down their arms, and rushed to embrace him. The troops of Lyons, notwithstanding the entreaties and remonstrances of the brother and nephew of the king, followed their example.

\* Louis XVIII., poor unfortunate boy, never had other kingdom than the prison in which he died, having survived his parents about two years. Louis XVII. was the oldest brother of Louis XVI.

Louis, meanwhile, had made the best dispositions in his power to arrest the progress of his rival. But he knew not whom to trust. Ney promised to bring Napoleon in a cage, and Louis gave him the command of the army stationed at Melun, to oppose his entrance into the capital. This army was drawn up, expecting that which Napoleon had collected on his way. A galloping of horses was heard, and Napoleon himself, with a few attendants, arrived, at full speed, in an open carriage. He leaped from his vehicle, and threw himself into their arms. Their hearts melted; and thus (the proudest of his victories) Napoleon won the last army which Louis could bring into the field.

On the 10th of March, Louis again went into exile, and established his little court at Ostend, while Napoleon, in Paris, was seeking amidst complicated difficulties, to regulate the government. When the news of his debarkation from Elba was made known to the sovereigns at Vienna, they burst into a laugh; but they soon found occasion for more serious proceedings.\* Scornfully rejecting the proffers of Napoleon for reconciliation, they issued their manifesto, declaring that he had forfeited the only legal title to life, and that he was a disturber of the public tranquillity, and without the pale of civil and social relations. Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, re-assembled large armies. The whole fortified frontier of the Belgic provinces on the side of France, was occupied by strong garrisons, chiefly of troops in British pay, of which the duke of Wellington took the supreme command. The Russian army under prince Blucher, advanced to co-operate with him. The allies had in arms, in their various positions, upwards of a million of troops, to make war, as they declared, upon one man!

The efforts of Napoleon were unremitting and gigantic, and he assembled a force which, though vastly inferior to that of the allies, was yet formidable. On the 16th of June, the French obtained, at Ligny, a victory over the Prussians, and compelled them to retreat. On the

18th, was fought the ever memorable battle of Waterloo. The Prussians were commanded by Blucher; the English by Wellington; and the French were, for the last time, under the eye of Napoleon. The battle was long and obstinately contested. It ended in the complete triumph of the allies, and the sun of Napoleon now set forever. He returned to Paris, and there found that he had no longer the confidence of the nation. Some proposed that he should dissolve the legislative chambers, and assume the dictatorship. La Fayette, then a member of the body, came boldly forward, and made and carried a motion that all attempts to dissolve the assembly of the representatives of the people, at that perilous crisis, should be considered high treason.

\* Perhaps they recalled the advice of Philip of France to John of England, when Richard Cœur de Lion had escaped from the German prison, "Beware! the devil is unchained."

France had shed blood enough for the ambition of one man ; against the force in arms, it was vain for the nation to attempt resistance. Napoleon yielded to the crisis, and abdicated his crown in favour of his son. The assembly received his abdication, but made no pledge in regard to his son. Napoleon took a sorrowful farewell of his army, then went to Rochfort, designing to embark for America. The harbour was blockaded by a British squadron. He went on board one of the ships, and surrendered himself to the commander, claiming, as he was self delivered, the hospitality of the British nation. They sent him to St. Helena, a rock in the ocean, where he died, May 5, 1821 ; and now, in a little grass-grown nook, two weeping willows mark the grave of Napoleon. But the everlasting mountains tower above, and the perpetual sea is at the base ; and the passing mariner regards them as emblems of his genius, and his fame.

1821.

Napoleon dies at  
St. Helena.

## CHAPTER II.

### GREAT BRITAIN AND AMERICA, FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS, 1802, TO THE FALL OF NAPOLEON, 1815.

#### SECTION I.

The terms of the treaty of Amiens, formed in 1802, were hard upon England. She had been compelled to surrender all her conquests, except Trinidad, in the West Indies, and Ceylon, in the East. Some public rejoicings were held in London, but the people generally were by no means satisfied. And when it was seen that Bonaparte not only maintained his military ornaments ; but made new attempts to aggrandize France, Great Britain recalled her minister from his court, and declared war. This measure enkindled the indignation of Napoleon, and he made vast preparations for the invasion and conquest of the British islands. The English spirit rose with the crisis. Other occupation was found for Napoleon, and he was deterred from the project of invasion, and obliged to march into Germany, to combat a new coalition that "British gold and hatred," to use his own words, had caused against him.

1803.

Great Britain  
declares war against  
France.

1804.

French fleet  
captured.

The English continued the war in the East Indies, and acquired large territories from the native princes. They were triumphant over the French by sea, and captured their East India homeward fleet. Spain, well known to have been long in the interests of France, and subservient to the views of Napoleon, was employed in increasing and strengthening her naval armaments. This increased the jealousy

and displeasure of England, and war was declared against that power. The French fleet, under admiral Villeneuve, formed a junction with that of Spain. The combined fleet, numbering 32 sail of the line, was attacked near Cape Trafalgar by the British fleet, consisting of 27 sail, under lord Nelson, and a tremendous action ensued. A most signal victory, which destroyed nearly the whole fleet, was achieved by British skill and valour; but it was dearly bought. The gallant Nelson fell, and with him nearly two thousand of his brave comrades.

William Pitt, the energy of whose character had so long sustained the nation, the beginning of this year sunk under the weight of care; and his rival, Mr. Fox, appointed his successor, died also before its close. In the meantime, the Cape of Good Hope, and Buenos Ayres had been conquered by the British.

The emperor Napoleon, having by a series of unparalleled victories reduced the continent of Europe to submission, attempted, in 1807, to compel the people, by what he called his "continental system," to prohibit British commerce. To retaliate upon France, the English ministry had issued orders blockading the large portion of the western coasts of Europe extending from the mouth of the Elbe to Brest. These and other measures of France and England nearly annihilated the commerce of the American republic. Mr.

Jefferson, then president, caused an embargo to be laid on the American shipping; but proving extremely unpopular, it was repealed, and a non-intercourse with the two offending nations substituted. Great Britain made open pretensions to the supremacy of the ocean, assumed the right to search neutral vessels, and to take from them not only such articles as the officers of their ships judged contraband, but also her native seamen. Under this pretended right, she had grossly insulted the American flag, and taken native born American sailors, and pressed them into her service.

England, though she played the tyrant on the ocean, nevertheless at this moment presented an interesting spectacle. Napoleon, now called "The Great," was every where triumphant. Even in Spain, resistance had nearly ceased; and all the other great powers of Europe were his vassals. England alone maintained the unequal contest.

The venerable George III. had now attained the 50th year of his reign. His general health was good, but his mind was borne down by a severe domestic affliction, and his reason was lost.\* His son George, the prince of Wales, was formally invested with the regency of the kingdom.

The dispute with the United States acquired by degrees a hostile aspect, and a rencontre which happened between the United States

\* His youngest daughter, the princess Amelia, was seized with a fatal disease. In his last visit to his favourite, but dying child, she placed a ring, with a lock of her hair enclosed, upon his finger, as a token of affectionate remembrance, and took of him her last solemn farewell. The aged monarch and too sensitive father, sunk under the trial. He was never afterwards capable of transacting business.

frigate, the *President*, and a British ship of war, the *Little Belt*, although disavowed by both governments, served to nourish mutual animosities. Negotiations having at length been exhausted, both nations assumed a hostile attitude, and on the 18th of June, the United States put forth a declaration of war.

1812.

America declares  
war against Eng-  
land.

## SECTION II.

Gen. Hull, on the part of the Americans, invaded Upper Canada, but was soon compelled to retreat. The British general, Brock, pursued him to Detroit, and there caused him to surrender his whole force. The American honour was better sustained at sea. The British frigate *Guerrier*, struck to the frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Hull, and the frigate *Macedonian* was captured by Commodore Decatur, commanding the frigate *United States*. In several other naval actions the Americans were also victorious.

General Winchester was defeated before Detroit. But York, the capital of Upper Canada, surrendered to the Americans, under general Dearborn. General Clay was defeated at the rapids of the Miami. Fort George was taken by the Americans, and the British squadron on lake Erie, captured by Commodore Perry. On lake Ontario, a strong naval armament was kept up, without any decisive superiority on either side. In the mean time, a British squadron entered the Chesapeake, and committed depredations on its shores. The Chesapeake, an American frigate, too hastily fitted for sea, surrendered to the *Shannon*, a British frigate of superior force.

1813.

York taken.

Commodore Chauncey having obtained the ascendancy on lake Ontario, a large force under general Brown crossed the Niagara river, and, aided by the militia under general Porter, captured fort Erie. This was the first of a brilliant series of victories obtained by the American generals, Porter, Scott, Ripley and Brown, on the Niagara frontier. The most bloody of these conflicts was the night-battle of Bridgewater.

1814.

Battles of Niagara  
frontier.

Sir George Prevost, being reinforced by Wellington's veterans, at the head of 12,000 choice troops, invaded the American territory. He pursued his course without opposition until he arrived before Plattsburgh. At this place were stationed about 4000 American troops, chiefly militia, under General Macomb. A British flotilla on lake Champlain, under captain Downie, also reached Plattsburgh bay at the same time. To secure his communication with Canada, it was necessary for the British general to have the command of the lake. For this purpose, Capt. Downie was ordered to attack the

American squadron, commanded by Commodore Macdonough. A severe conflict ensued in the harbour of Plattsburgh, which ended in the total destruction of the British flotilla, and the fall of its gallant commander. The commander-in-chief of the British forces saw this unexpected result with dismay. And to add to his distress, he learned that the militia of the adjacent states of New York and Vermont, by a general rally, were pressing forward by forced marches to succour Macomb. He perceived that his outposts were already attacked with spirit, and that his retreat was about to be cut off. In this condition a hasty retreat was ordered. Camp equipage and military stores were abandoned, and the retreat became little better than a flight.

This affair ended the military operations in the north. In the south a predatory warfare had been waged by admiral Cockburn, chiefly of the most petty character. Nor was its object much changed on the arrival of Gen. Ross. This officer landed a strong predatory force from the united fleets of Cockburn, Malcom and Cochrane, and proceeded to Washington for the avowed purpose of burning and destroying the public edifices and works of art at that place. This object being effected, the British commander made a hasty retreat and reembarked his troops. The next attempt of Gen. Ross was against the city of Baltimore. While advancing to the attack, he was met by a detachment of American riflemen, and fell mortally wounded in a skirmish. By this time the defence around Baltimore assumed so formidable an appearance that the British commanders, both of the navy and army, judged that the prospect of success was not equal to the hazard, and the invading army was ordered to reembark.

Admiral Cochran withdrew to the West Indies. Being reinforced, his fleet now consisted of thirteen ships of the line and transports, in which he received Sir Edward Pakenham and a well appointed army of thirteen thousand men, destined for an attack upon New Orleans. Well grounded fears were entertained for the safety of that important city. Gen. Jackson was charged with its defence, and with his characteristic intrepidity repaired to that post. The approach of the enemy both by sea and land, was conducted with great skill and bravery. Three thousand British troops under Gen. Kean, effected a landing on the 23d of December, and took a position nine miles below New Orleans. Gen. Pakenham, with the main army and a heavy train of artillery, arrived soon after. Gen. Jackson had taken his position with judgment, and fortified it with care. Having

1815.

Battle of New-Orleans.

previously made the necessary arrangements, on the 8th of January, Sir Edward Pakenham prepared to storm the American entrenchments. A deadly fire from the American batteries, and entrenched riflemen, overwhelmed and threw back the British divisions, as often as they rallied to the charge. In their repeated attempts to rally their forces to renewed efforts, the commander-in-chief had fallen, and the sec-



ond and third in command had been wounded, and carried from the field. The slaughter at length became too appalling for further effort, and the British were driven from the field in confusion. Their loss was 2,600, while of the Americans but six were killed, and seven wounded, a disproportion of loss not recorded of any other battle. Thus closed the military operations on land.

At sea, the frigate United States surrendered to a British frigate, 1815. the *Endymion*. Peace had in the mean time been concluded between the two nations, by a treaty negotiated at Ghent. Changes in Europe had done away that part of the subject of complaint on the part of the Americans which related to commerce, and the question concerning the claim of the British to search neutral vessels was waived. But the Americans had shown the British that it could not with impunity be exercised on them. Before the intelligence of peace could be communicated to the naval commanders on distant stations, other naval actions were fought, which terminated in the triumph of the American arms.

Peace with America at this moment was fortunate for England; for Napoleon, her old and most dreaded enemy, soon after broke loose from Elba, and repossessed himself of the throne of France. Upon an emergency so unexpected, all the energies of the British empire were needed, and, as we have before seen, put in requisition. We have also seen the result. Napoleon delivered himself to England, declaring that he considered her the noblest of his foes.\*

\* Napoleon's intention was to have come to our own country. What would have been the result? Would not the allied powers have demanded him of us, as by their declaration it was with *him*, not with France that they warred? Would not the federal party, to whom his very name was abhorrent, have upheld the justice of their demand, and the republican party, who were his admirers, and in power, have rejected it at all hazards? The immense armies of the allied powers were then on the western borders of Europe, and England had ships with nothing else to do but to bring them across the ocean; and the recent naval defeats, with that at New Orleans, were not balanced by successes, nor forgotten. The freedom of our political institutions was one of the leading causes of the disturbances of Europe, begun in France, and it was natural that this should be feared and hated by the sovereigns of Europe. In short, is it not to be regarded as a signal interposition of Providence in our behalf, that Napoleon's steps were turned from our shores?

## PERIOD IX.

COMPRISING EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED FROM THE

Battle of { NINTH EPOCH, 1815 A. D. } Waterloo.

TO THE

{ PRESENT TIME, 1835. A. D. }

### CHAPTER I.

#### BRAZIL AND PORTUGAL.

THE removal of John VI. of Portugal,\* and the Portuguese government, in 1808, to Brazil, was the commencement of the prosperity of that great South American empire. The first act of the government, after its arrival, was to open the ports of Brazil to the commerce of all friendly nations. The tribunal of the inquisition was abolished, and the slave trade prohibited. A treaty of alliance and commerce which the Brazilian government now made with England, added greatly to the strength and resources of the nation. In 1815, a monarchical government was established ; and Brazil became virtually independent of Portugal.

1810.  
First measures of  
the Brazilian gov-  
ernment.

The crown prince, Don Pedro, had married the arch-duchess Leopoldine, the daughter of Francis I. and Maria Theresa of Austria.

1821.  
Don Pedro emper-  
ror.  
John VI. having returned to Portugal, his son Don Pedro administered the government, and was appointed constitutional emperor. Portugal acknowledged the independence of Brazil, and the emperor exchanged ministers and treaties with foreign nations.

1826.  
John VI. dies in  
Portugal.  
Donna Maria.  
John VI. died March 10, 1826, and his daughter, the infanta Isabella, was appointed regent. The right to the crown of Portugal belonged to Don Pedro, emperor of Brazil. But by the constitution of the empire he could not leave that country, and he resigned his rights in Portugal to his daughter, Donna Maria de

\* In bringing down the history of nations to the present time, we have made retrospective views of such countries as have not heretofore required a prominent place.

Gloria. Don Miguel, brother of Don Pedro, contested her right. He was aided by the nobility and the monks ; while the constitutionalists and patriots rested their hopes on the infanta, Donna Maria, then in Brazil. Her presence in Portugal, it was believed, could heal the unhappy divisions of the kingdom. With this view, the young princess left Brazil. But Don Miguel was waging a war of extermination against her partisans ; and she took refuge in London, where she was received with all the honour due to her high station. No event favourable to her fortunes having transpired in Portugal, she returned to her father in Brazil.

On the 8th of April, 1831, Don Pedro abdicated the imperial crown of Brazil in favour of his infant son, Don Pedro II., and embarked with his daughter for Portugal. He has since established her upon the throne of that kingdom. In the meantime, the government of Brazil has been administered by a regency.

## CHAPTER II.

### SPANISH AMERICA.

The jealous policy of Spain led her to suppress, as much as was in her power, all intercourse between her American colonies and the rest of the world. But little was therefore known of the condition and resources of those extensive and interesting countries. At length, wearied with the former despotism of that power, and disgusted alike with the quarrels and crimes of the reigning family, and the invasion and the usurpation of the kingdom by Napoleon, these provinces began to take measures to assert their independence. These events opened a free intercourse between them and foreign nations, and their history is beginning to be better known.

1806.

Revolt of Spanish  
America.

and the usurpation of the kingdom by Napoleon, these provinces began to take measures to assert their independence. These events opened a free intercourse between them and foreign nations, and

In 1806, general Miranda, a native of Caraccas, who had served

1806.

Miranda's attempt  
in Caraccas.

with reputation in the armies of republican France, made a generous but premature attempt to liberate his native country.

In 1810, the Spanish officers were deposed, and a new government organized, under the name of the Confederation of Venezuela. A congress assembled, independence was declared, and a constitution on republican principles was adopted, and the cause of freedom for a short time prospered.

1810.

Venezuela declares  
herself independent.

But a numerous and mercenary clergy, alarmed at the triumphs of liberty, found occasion to arrest the progress of public opinion. The fatal earthquake of 1812, which laid almost the entire city of Caraccas in ruins, was the occasion seized on by them to

1812.

Earthquake at Ca-  
raccas.

operate on the ignorance and superstition of the people. They rep-

resented this natural phenomenon as a demonstration of the particular wrath of heaven, inflicted upon a rebellious and disobedient people, for daring to improve their political condition. The people were dismayed, public opinion instantly changed, and the whole province again submitted to royal authority.

Venezuela remained thus subject to Spain until 1813, when it was again emancipated by the military achievements of the brave and victorious Bolivar,\* who, in repeated engagements, defeated the Spanish forces, and expelled them from his country. And thus one by one the Spanish provinces of Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Buenos Ayres, and Chili, commenced those commotions and revolutions which are yet scarcely settled. The history of one is, in most essential points, the history of all. The power of Spain over them is indeed broken, and their independence of foreign dominion established. But they seem destined to be rent by domestic factions, and the lawless desire for power of ambitious military chieftains.

1813.

Bolivar emancipates his country.

The other Spanish provinces independent.

## CHAPTER III.

### THE GREEK REVOLUTION.

The modern Greeks, conquered and long held in subjection by the Turks, never felt any respect or friendship for their masters, but bore the yoke with stubborn reluctance. Symptoms at length appeared of resolute resistance. The political writings of Montesquieu, Beccaria, Franklin, and other apostles of liberty, had been translated into modern Greek. Schools had been established, learning began to revive, and their original, noble tongue to be studied. The Greek name, with all its ancient associations, animated them. Commercial enterprise and foreign intercourse, particularly with France and the United States of America, quickened their desire for liberty. Many educated Greeks were in the Russian service. Among these were the count Capo d'Istria, the Ypsilantis, and many other distinguished names.

Causes of the Greek revolution.

\* In February, 1827, the writer of this history addressed a respectful memorial to Bolivar, through the Columbian minister, M. Salazar, then resident in this country, on the importance and long neglected justice of establishing and endowing literary institutions for females. The dictator referred it to the minister of the interior, who by his orders returned an answer dated March, 1828, giving hopes that the suggestions of the memorial would be acted on. A female college was established at Caraccas, and endowed by the government. It is said to be respectable, and in a train for usefulness. This is probably the first institution of the kind. Napoleon's "royal school" was not made on the just and liberal principle of allowing women their proper share of that intellectual food by which the mind expands and improves, and the human species rises in the scale of being.

The "Hetairia" a "society of Greek Friends" was formed and patronized by these men. These were the men who first raised the standard of revolt, and called their countrymen to liberty. They at first counted upon the aid and co-operation of Russia, but being disappointed and betrayed by that power, they resolved to rely only on themselves and the justice of their cause.

Society of the  
Hetairia.

The struggle no sooner commenced than it became one of life and death. It was not so much a war of battles, as of devastations and murders. Even the women of the Greek islands took arms for liberty, and many of them became distinguished for bravery. The Greek clergy were particular objects of Turkish vengeance. Gregory, the venerable patriarch of Constantinople, was barbarously slain, at the door of his sanctuary. The Christian bishops were murdered, and their churches every where torn down and destroyed. These acts of atrocious barbarism, so far from intimidating, roused the spirit of the Greeks. Modern ages never before saw such appalling horrors as were perpetrated by these conflicts. The Greeks were without a government, and without support, except what they received from some charitable associations, in Great Britain, France, and the United States. But they proceeded in

Cruelties of the  
Turks.

1822.

Greeks form a  
government.

1822 to form a union under an independent federative government, and their prospects began to brighten.—The Persians had invaded the Turkish empire, and the sultan was obliged to send a powerful army to the Euphrates. He became jealous of Russia, and placed a strong military force upon the Danube, to watch the hostile movements of that power. One of his own vassals, also, the bold and desperate chieftain, Ali Pacha, was in open rebellion against him. These troubles compelled him for a season to relax his operations against the revolted Greeks.

But having at length purchased a peace with Persia, destroyed Ali Pacha, and entered into friendly relations with Russia, he was again at leisure to prosecute the Greek war with vigour. Scio was

1822.

Massacre at Scio.

the first object of his rage, and fifteen thousand of the most barbarous of the Asiatic Turks were let loose upon that beautiful island. The Sciotes made a glorious resistance. But they were overpowered, and in a few days, their little paradise was laid waste. Twenty-five thousand, men, women and children, were massacred, and thirty thousand carried into captivity. But a terrible retribution awaited the Turkish fleet, then prepared to spread desolation in the Morea. The Ipsariotes, having secured their families, went on board their little fleet. They grappled their fire ships to the ship commanded by the Turkish admiral, which blew up with terrible destruction. The commander himself, and nearly three thousand of his men perished in the explosion.

The inhuman Kurchid Pacha, at the head of 25,000 Turks, passed the celebrated straits of Thermopylæ, and proceeded to subdue and

lay waste the entire Grecian peninsula. The Greek chieftains, Nichetas, Demetrius Ypsilanti, and Colocotroni, hastened to the scene of danger. They occupied the straits which the enemy had passed, and cut off his communications. In this extremity, the Turkish commander offered to evacuate and leave the Grecian territory. This was refused him. He then made a desperate effort to break through the Greek defences in the night. But Nichetas fell upon the confused and bewildered Turks, and cut up and destroyed the whole army.

1822.

Destruction of the  
Turks at Thermopy-  
læ.

After this, the Turkish armies made but little progress in Greece, until the celebrated Ibrahim Pacha of Egypt, was appointed by the sultan, governor of Greece, and charged with the management of the war. He opened the campaign of 1826 with energy, and the conquest of Greece, by that brave and fortunate Egyptian, seemed inevitable. In this alarming crisis, the Greeks implored the aid of Christian powers.

1826.

Ibrahim Pacha in-  
vades Greece.

On the 6th of July, 1827, by the treaty of London, the ministers of Great Britain, France, and Russia, guarantied the pacification of Greece. The Greeks elected count Capo d'Istrias their president, and the ministers of the three powers notified the Turkish government, that "Greece must thereafter govern herself." The Turks re-

1827.

Pacification of  
Greece.

jected the offered pacification of the three powers, and Ibrahim, with the Turkish-Egyptian fleet, entered the bay of Navarino. While lying there in order of battle, the combined British, French and Russian fleets approached, and a deadly conflict ensued. The Turkish armada of 110 ships fought with desperation. Not a flag was struck, and the whole fleet was either burnt, sunk, or dis-

1827.

Battle of Navarino.  
Peace.

abled. Hostilities now ceased. And the sultan soon after acceded to the treaty of London. The talents of the president, count Capo d'Istrias, were directed to the domestic administration of Greece. He established useful institutions, and the people began to prosper.

The combined powers, who decided that the government must be monarchical, first offered the crown to prince Leopold, the widowed son-in-law of George II. of England. He declining the offer, it was conferred upon prince Otho, second son of Lewis, king of Bavaria, who accepted it, with the title of sovereign prince of Greece. The excellent character of the father gives reason for favourable expectations with regard to the son. His ministers have been occupied in organizing the government. They have gratified the people by establishing the religion of the ancient Greek church. Schools are encouraged,\* and commerce and agriculture begin to revive.

\* On the 5th of July, 1834, a decree was made to encourage the spreading of female education over Greece.

## CHAPTER IV.

## FRANCE AND THE HOLY ALLIANCE, INCLUDING A GENERAL VIEW OF CONTINENTAL EUROPE FROM 1815 TO 1834.

## SECTION I.

On the abdication of Napoleon, the command of the French army devolved on Marshal Davoust. By a military convention with Blucher and Wellington, he withdrew his army behind the Loire, and Paris was again occupied with foreign troops, under whose protection, Louis XVIII., a second time, took possession of the throne.

1815.  
Louis re-enters  
Paris.

France was now compelled to surrender some of her most flourishing provinces, to maintain, for five years, a foreign army, and to pay a tribute of 700,000 francs. Marshal Ney was condemned and shot, contrary to the treaty of capitulation, and other adherents of Napoleon were punished with rigour, and the *ancient regime* was established.

On the 26th of September, the sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, formed the league called the "Holy Alliance," and issued a solemn manifesto, in which the pretended divine right of hereditary princes, was defended by sophistry, and cloaked by religion. Joachim Murat, king of Naples, was not received as a legitimate sovereign; and in a contest with Austria, he was deserted by his subjects, taken prisoner, and shot, October, 1815.

The emperor Alexander of Russia, having assumed the title of czar and king of Poland, promulgated a charter, adapted rather to deceive, than to benefit the unfortunate people. A Russian barbarian, in the person of Constantine, brother of the emperor, was placed at Warsaw, as commander-in-chief of the kingdom. Under this despot, the charter became a cruel mockery, and the sufferings of the people were intolerable.

The congress of Aix-la-Chapelle established the principle of an "armed intervention," or in other words, the members of the Holy Alliance agreed to assist each other with their whole military force, against their own subjects, in case of a revolt in either kingdom.

France was represented in this congress, and became a member of the Holy Alliance; thus lending her aid to an odious military despotism, which was nothing short of a conspiracy against the rights

1818.  
Congress of Aix-la-  
Chapelle.

1820.  
Congress of Troppau.

and liberties of their own people.\* And at the congress which convened at Troppau, the principle was still further extended, and the preposterous right was claimed to interfere in, and coerce, the domestic affairs of all other nations.

This pretended right was shamefully exercised in relation to the affairs of Spain, Portugal, and Naples. The people of all these kingdoms had obtained better securities for their liberties, by adopting free constitutions. Their respective rulers had sworn to be governed by them, and the people felt that they had secured the blessings of liberty to themselves and their posterity. This they believed to be the right of every people, inherent and unalienable. But this the "armed intervention" of the high powers, parties to the "Holy Alliance," would not allow. They sent their armies into those kingdoms, broke up the domestic arrangements of the people, abrogated their constitutions, and restored the sovereigns to absolute power. These acts of gross violence against the sovereignty of nations were abhorrent to all liberal men in Europe and America.

1823.  
The Holy Alliance denounced.

The American government, through president Monroe, took solemn notice of them, and declared that such principles should not be extended to any part of their continent. The doctrine was boldly denounced in the French chamber of deputies, and created great heat and excitement in that kingdom.

The ministry became alarmed, and were proceeding to extreme measures, when public attention was diverted by the death of Louis XVIII. His brother Charles, duke of Artois, a bigot in politics and religion, now ascended the throne, under the title of Charles X. The conflict of opinions continued. In proportion as liberal ideas obtained more favour with the people, the government became more despotic, and was agitated with the alarm and jealousy usually attending such a state. Even the return of La Fayette, from a visit of friendship to America, was watched with apprehension. The distinguished honours intended him by his fellow citizens on his landing at Havre, were suppressed; and those most active in his favour were punished by royal authority.

1824.  
Louis XVIII.

1825.  
French government jealous of the Liberals.

The arbitrary Villèle was now at the head of the ministry. He had obtained a majority in the French chamber of deputies, by influencing the elections. But this short sighted expedient did not increase the solidity of his power. He was aware that the political character of the deputies thus elected, was no criterion of the sentiment of the people. To divert their attention from his measures, the

\* A congress where the governments of Europe are represented, and where mutual disputes can be amicably adjusted, is doubtless to be desired; and had these assemblies proceeded on that principle, they would have been a blessing to Europe. As it is, it must be allowed that they have done some good, as in the case of Greece.



1826.

Coronation of  
Charles X.

minister resolved to gratify the national vanity, by a splendid public spectacle ; and the coronation of Charles X., with all the gorgeous and imposing superstition attending that ceremony in ancient times, was celebrated at Rheims, May 29th, 1826.

In Germany, also, the progress of learning and science, and the bold and free discussion of political opinions, caused much uneasiness among the rulers, and new and severe prosecutions served only to increase the spirit of resistance, and to spread wide among the people a

Liberal opinions in  
Germany.

knowledge of their rights. Alexander I., emperor of Russia, was an able statesman, as well as warrior. Under his administration, the power and influence of that vast and semi-barbarous empire were felt in every court of Europe. On his death, which occurred December 1st, 1826, Constantine, his brother, was declared emperor. This prince was then administering the government of Poland, and re-

1826.

Nicholas of Russia.

nounced his hereditary right to Russia, to his brother Nicholas, who immediately assumed the government, and dated his reign from the death of Alexander.

Nicholas entered upon the administration with great vigour. He suppressed conspiracies, and protected the distant frontiers of his empire against the inroads of foreign nations. Peace was maintained with China.

Russia makes peace  
with Persia.

The invasion of the Persians under Abbas Mirza was repelled, and peace was granted to that nation only on condition of her ceding to Russia large territories on both sides of the river Araxes, and paying the expenses occasioned by the war.

In the meantime the Turkish sultan, having modelled his armies on the European system, and suppressed a bloody insurrection occasioned by the Janizaries in Constantinople, and seeing Russia occupied with the Persian war, took courage to place himself in a hostile attitude against that power. He also refused the mediation offered by Great Britain, Russia and France, between him and the revolted

1828.

War between Rus-  
sia and Turkey.

Greeks, and prepared to prosecute with new vigour, the war with them. In doing this, he invaded some of the Russian provinces. Both nations now charged each other with the violation of treaties, and prepared for war.

The Russian forces, amounting to 115,000, passed the river Pruth. After numerous conflicts, sieges, and well fought battles, both in Europe and Asia, in which victory repeatedly changed sides, the Russians at length prevailed. Having passed the Balkan mountains, they occupied Adrianople, the second city in the Turkish empire, where, in 1829, they dictated the terms of peace.

## SECTION II.

The severity of the Russian government in Poland had always been intolerable to that brave and ancient people. Polish revolution. An extensive conspiracy of the youth of the first families of the kingdom, was formed for the purpose of liberating their country. Their operations were at first carried on in secret. But the suspicions of a vigilant police were awakened, and the conspiracy was discovered by artifice. Russian jealousy and vengeance now became excited to the extreme, and the prisons were crowded with Polish victims. This was the prelude to unprecedented events of desperate daring, and patriotic sacrifice, on the part of the Poles.

On the evening of the 19th of November, 1830, a young Polish officer entered the military school at Warsaw and called the youth to arms. The cadets instantly took up their line of march, and accompanied by the students of the university, proceeded to the residence of Constantine, and forced their way into his palace. He escaped by a secret passage. The insurrection immediately became general. Forty thousand Polish troops and citizens, having seized the public arsenal, and armed themselves, expelled the Russian troops from Warsaw. A Polish diet was immediately assembled, and independence declared.

In the meantime the emperor Nicholas issued a proclamation, denouncing the patriots as rebels and disturbers of the public peace. A succession of sanguinary conflicts followed. The brave Poles were at first victorious in many battles. But alone and single-handed, they were unable to stand before the innumerable hordes of the semi-barbarians sent forth from Russia to enslave them. Driven to the defensive, they concentrated their forces around Warsaw. Here, after several days of continued fighting, the Polish armies were defeated, Warsaw was taken, the liberty of Poland expired, and her brave sons were slaughtered, or driven into exile.

Russians take Warsaw—Poland again enslaved.

After the coronation of Charles X. in France, the Jesuits, and such as adhered to arbitrary principles, were taken into favour with the king. They were opposed with great energy and boldness by the liberals.—To make themselves popular with the nation, the ministry resorted to a war with Algiers. The war was ably conducted, and ended in the entire subjugation of that regency. But the ministry obtained no credit even for this. The elections were carried against them, which they attributed to the influence of the press. "A free press," they said, "was at all times an instrument of disorder and

1829.

War with Algiers.

1830.

Revolution of the  
"Three Days."

sedition. And on the 26th of July, 1830, they published the "three" celebrated "ordinances." The first dissolving the chamber of deputies, the second suspending the liberty of the press, and the third prescribing a new and arbitrary law of election. The first attempts to carry their despotic ordinances into execution was the signal for "the revolution of the three days of July, 1830." This revolution, like the American, was a contest of principle. It was not the frenzy of a licentious mob, demanding of the government concessions to which they were not entitled, but the moral determination of the sound and sober sense of the nation, manfully resisting a palpable usurpation, and defending to the last extremity their constitutional rights. Under the guidance of the venerable La Fayette, the "standard"\* around which the liberal French, as if moved by one spirit, involuntarily rallied, the revolution was effected with the loss of about 1,000 men, who fell in the contest during the "three days," when the citizens of Paris opposed and conquered the royal forces there stationed. La Fayette was again made commander-in-chief of the national guards.

Liberals rally  
around La Fayette.Ministers tried and  
imprisoned.

Charles and the royal family were permitted to depart from France. The chamber of deputies declared the throne vacant, and invited the duke of Orleans to become king of the French, who, under the name of Louis Philippe, accepted the crown. The late ministers were tried and punished by perpetual imprisonment. The rights of the French people became better defined. Hereditary nobility was abolished, and the elective franchise extended. The people obtained other privileges, and especially, they no longer suffered the mortification of living under a government imposed upon them by foreign bayonets.

1731.

Revolution in  
Belgium.

The French revolution of 1830 was immediately followed by that of Belgium. The Belgic people, always French in their intercourse and feelings, had been injudiciously annexed to Holland. An opportunity was now seized to sever themselves; and a national congress assembled, which declared the independence of Belgium, and in 1832, adopted a constitutional monarchy. Leopold, prince of Saxe Cobourg, son-in-law of George IV. of England was elected king. The independence of Belgium, and the title of king Leopold, has been since recognized by most foreign powers. Leopold married Louisa Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Louis Philippe, king of the French. By means of this family alliance, the honour of France and Great Britain is pledged to sustain the independence of Belgium.

Leopold king.

Whatever may be thought of the character of Louis Philippe, it must be acknowledged that his throne has been beset with difficul-

\* The "standard," "the old standard," was the appellation familiarly given to La Fayette himself.

ties. The advocates of the old monarchy, Bonapartists and republicans, although agreeing in nothing else, mutually resist his title and disturb his authority. The honour of the French name has, however, been generally sustained abroad, and the factions at home have not yet been able materially to disturb the public tranquillity, or check the rapid growth and prosperity of the nation.

### SECTION III.

#### GREAT BRITAIN.

Until the close of the wars of the French revolution, the attitude of Great Britain had been warlike. She had stood, the bulwark of Europe, against the encroachments of Napoleon. Her energies had been excited to rescue France to her original limits, to destroy her naval force, and to cripple her commerce. But in doing this, Great Britain subjected herself to immense sacrifices. Her debt amounted to more than the whole resources of the kingdom, if applied to no other purpose, could pay in forty years ; and internal disturbances gave just cause of alarm to the government. It was now clearly seen that war destroyed the resources of the nation altogether beyond the means afforded for supply ; that wealth and prosperity developed, most rapidly, and the people were more contented and loyal when left to pursue their own occupations in peace.

Since 1815, the policy of the English government had been, in general, pacific. Those political reformatations, called for by the progress of events and the spirit of the age, which have cost the other states of Europe so much blood and treasure, have been gradually and safely effected in Great Britain, by the constitutional operations of the government. The Roman Catholics, heretofore prohibited from holding offices, have been emancipated and restored to their political rights. Test acts have been abolished ; the representation in parliament has been reformed, and established on more just and equitable principles. The slave trade has been prohibited, and slavery abolished throughout the British dominions.

George III. died in 1820, after a long and exceedingly diversified reign. The mental insanity which had, for several years, afflicted him, continued until his death. George IV. his son and successor, who had held the office of regent, lost much favour with the people, on account of the scandalous and fruitless prosecution which he caused to be carried on against his queen, Caroline, for the purpose of obtaining a divorce ; but a familiar tour of observation through his dominions, re-established his popularity.

During his reign, the most liberal measures were pursued, both in the foreign and domestic policy of the nation, and the power and wealth of the people increased. He died on the 26th of January

1829, and was succeeded by his brother, the duke of Clarence, with the name and title of William IV. The reign of king William has been governed by the same liberal and pacific policy which distinguished that of his predecessor. The administration of both these sovereigns has done much to promote constitutional liberty, and to oppose the unlimited monarchical principles which that confederation of kings, composing the Holy Alliance, has laboured to establish. The position of Great Britain is indeed proudly eminent. She holds the balance between those rival principles—unlimited monarchy on the one hand, and extreme democracy on the other—which have convulsed Europe for the last thirty years. In fact, it may be asserted that, owing greatly to the resistance of her distinguished statesmen, among whom Canning and Brougham are pre-eminent, the league of the kings against the rights of the people, and the sovereignty of nations, is now no longer in force.

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## CHAPTER V.

### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The treaty of Ghent between Great Britain and the United States, was strictly a treaty of peace. The contracting nations were restored to the condition which they occupied before the war. The free institutions of the country had been tested, and found adequate to a state of war, as well as of peace; and their power and solidity were established in the estimation of foreign nations. But the happiest consequences were felt in the pacification of those violent and often alarming party feuds which had arrayed one half of the people against the other, at times closed the door of public confidence upon those so unhappy as not to agree in political sentiment with the stronger party, and made them feel that they were aliens and strangers in the land of their birth.

The government now felt at leisure to call the Algerines, and other corsairs of the coast of Barbary, to account for their recent depredations on American commerce. Commodore Decatur was despatched with a formidable naval force into the Mediterranean, to chastise them.

1815.  
Americans chastise  
the Algerines.

The Algerines were never before so completely subdued, and humbled. Their shipping was captured; their defences were destroyed; and the terrified Dey, while his chief city lay exposed to the destructive fire of Decatur's guns, accepted of peace upon the conditions imposed by the American commodore. He was compelled to make immediate compensation for the injuries he had done to American commerce, and to abolish the disgraceful tribute he had formerly ex-

acted. Tunis and Tripoli were also compelled to accede to humiliating terms of peace.

The attention of congress was directed to improve the internal condition and prosperity of the union. The bank of the United States was chartered, with a capital of 35,000,000 of dollars, and a tariff of duties on foreign commerce was established, whose object was to secure some of the more common, domestic manufactures against a ruinous foreign competition.

1816.  
Bank chartered—  
Tariff laid.

Mr. Madison, having enjoyed the presidency two constitutional terms, declined another election, and the votes of the colleges of electors of the several states were given, with great unanimity, to James Monroe, also a citizen of Virginia. Mr. Monroe commenced his ad-

1817.  
James Monroe  
president.

ministration under the happiest auspices; and its progress, like his character, was distinguished by wisdom and firmness. The federal union, which had been from time to time enlarged by the admission of new states, increased steadily in general prosperity. The Indian tribes on the north-western frontier maintained friendly relations; and by amicable treaties they sold to the United States their title to the lands in Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan. But the Seminoles, originally a band of outlaws, driven out from among the Creeks, a nation to which they formerly belonged, discovered symptoms of hostility. Having associated themselves with a horde of runaway negroes, and some British desperadoes, they commenced a course of ruthless depredation and murder, upon the defenceless inhabitants on the southern frontier. General Jackson received orders to inflict upon these marauders the chastisement they merited. In one short, but active campaign, the Seminoles, with their allies, were dispersed. The Spanish fleets off St. Marks and Pensacola, under which they had taken refuge, were captured, and tranquillity was restored to that frontier.

1818.  
Gen. Jackson chastises the Seminoles.

Under the auspices of a liberal and sagacious administration, the United States were fast relieving themselves from the pressure of pecuniary embarrassments occasioned by the late war. They had an affluent revenue, acquired mostly from duties upon foreign commerce, and from sales of public land. All internal taxes and duties were abolished; and the surviving soldiers of the revolution were relieved from poverty and suffering, by the grant of an adequate annual pension. The territory of East and West Florida was ceded by Spain to the United States, by which a long standing controversy with that nation was amicably settled, and the southern boundary of the union extended to the sea.

1819.  
Purchase of Florida.

"The era of good feeling, that so signally characterized the commencement of the administration of President Monroe, still more conspicuously distinguished its close. By particular invitation of the president, his old friend and fellow soldier, Gen. La Fayette, arrived in New York, August, 1824. All the associations connected with the name of

1824.  
Visit of La Fayette.

La Fayette, were dear to the American people, and he was met by a warmth of national friendship, and gratitude, beyond his most sanguine anticipations. Every where hailed as the cherished "guest of the nation," his progress through the twenty-four states of the republic was one continued triumphal procession. The gratitude of his adopted country did not exhaust itself in empty honours. In consequence of his services and expenditures during the American revolution, congress made him a grant of two hundred thousand dollars, and a valuable township of land in Florida. The interviews of La Fayette with some of his most distinguished co-patriots of olden time, among whom were the elder Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, were solemnly affecting; and more especially so were his pilgrimages to the tombs of Washington and others of the illustrious dead. After

1825.

John Q. Adams  
president.

having been present at the inauguration of the younger Mr. Adams, March 4th, 1825, and received from him, in the name of the nation, an eloquent and affecting farewell, he embarked on board the new frigate Brandywine, and soon lost sight forever of the land he had loved and served.

On the fiftieth anniversary of the declaration of American independence, July 4th, 1826, died Thomas Jefferson, the distinguished author of that declaration, and John Adams, its most devoted advocate.\*

1827.

Death of Adams  
and Jefferson.

At peace with all the world, and flourishing in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, the United States enjoyed a degree of prosperity never perhaps exceeded by that of any people. A wise and vigorous system of finance and expenditure, restricted to the wants of the public, was rapidly reducing the national debt, with the prospect of its speedy extinguishment, and a correspondent relief from the burdens of taxation.

On the 4th of March, 1829, Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, was inaugurated president of the United States, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, vice-president.

1829.

Andrew Jackson  
president.

Since the war with the Seminoles, the Indian tribes had remained in peace. But in April, 1832, the Winnebagoes, Sacs, and Foxes, inhabiting the Upper Mississippi, re-crossed that river, led on by the celebrated warrior Black Hawk, and other chiefs, and re-entered upon lands which they had before sold to the United States, and which were occupied by citizens of Illinois. These Indians, being well mounted and armed, scattered their

1832.

Indian war.

parties over that defenceless frontier with great rapidity, breaking up the settlements, killing whole families, and burning their dwellings. Generals Scott and Atkinson were charged with the defence of that frontier. By forced marches, General Atkinson came up with Black Hawk and his warriors, on the 2d of August, 1832, near the mouth of the Upper

\* The worthy James Monroe, another ex-president, died on the 4th of July, 1831, five years after.

loway. The Indians were routed and dispersed, and Black Hawk subsequently surrendered himself a prisoner. He was afterwards carried a captive to Washington. After having learned the great strength and resources of the nation, and become convinced of the folly of taking up arms, for any supposed wrongs done to his people, he was released, July 1833, and sent back, with presents, to his own country.

President Jackson met with a vigorous opposition to many of the leading measures of his administration, but he was, nevertheless, cheered and supported by constantly increasing majorities of his fellow citizens. On the 4th of March, 1833, he was

1833.

Andrew Jackson  
again president.

again inaugurated president, and Martin Van Buren, a native of New York, was elected vice-president. During the administration of Mr. Jackson,

some of the most trying and dangerous questions peculiar to our institutions, have been met with his characteristic firmness and decision, and disposed of, it is hoped, in such a manner as will secure the honour, happiness, and credit of the confederated republic.

In May, 1834, La Fayette was called to pay the debt of nature.

1834.

Death of La Fayette.

probably no individual recorded in history has been so extensively honoured in his death, by public mourning. How happy might society become, if all those engaged in political life, would emulate his virtuous example.





23.



